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ABSTRACT

The 11 papers in this booklet were presented at meetings of 3 sections within the Division of General Research Libraries: (1) "On the Concept of Development of the National Library of the USSR" (N. I. Tyulina); (2) "Strategic Planning in National Libraries" (Maurice B. Line, UK); (3) "Strategic Planning in National Libraries" (Patricia Donlon, Ireland); (4) "University Libraries in the USSR" (Vyacheslav V. Mosyagin); (5) "Le role culturel des bibliotheques universitaires (The Cultural Role of University Libraries)" (Michel Melot); (6) "Storing the World's Information--A 21st Century Crisis" (Marilyn J. Sharrow, USA); (7) "Tomorrow Is Another Day for University Library Services" (G. G. Allen Curtin, Australia); (8) "Researchers' Need for Audiovisual Media as Material" (Piet Van Wijk, the Netherlands); (9) "Mediating News and Public Opinion to Members of Parliament" (Brit Floistad, Norway); (10) "Building a Parliamentary Research Capability" (William H. Robinson, USA); and (11) "Collection Development Policies of Parliamentary Libraries" (Ernst Kohl, Germany). (MAB)

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57th IFLA GENERAL CONFERENCE MOSCOW, USSR 18–24 AUGUST 1991

BOOKLET 1

DIVISION OF GENERAL RESEARCH LIBRARIES

SECTION OF NATIONAL LIBRARIES

Session 94 20 August 9:00 — 11:30

On the Concept of Development of the National Library of the USSR (78–NAT–1–E) ..... 1–1 — N. I. Tyulina, senior researcher, Lenin state library of the USSR, Moscow

Strategic Planning in National Libraries (94–NAT–2–E) ..... 1–4 — Maurice B. Line, Information & Library Consultant, Harrogate, UK

Strategic Planning in National Libraries (95–NAT–3–E) ..... 1–7 — Patricia Donlon, National Library of Ireland

SECTION OF UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES AND OTHER GENERAL RESEARCH LIBRARIES

Session 82 19 August 9:00 — 11:30

University Libraries in the USSR (24–UN–1–E) ..... 1–10 — Vyacheslav V. Mosyagin, Director of the Moscow University Scientific Library, USSR

Le rôle culturel des bibliothèques universitaires (40–UN–2–F) ..... 1–13 — Michel Melot, Vice–président du Conseil supérieur des bibliothèques, ancien directeur de la Bibliothèque publique d'information au Centre Georges Pompidou, Paris, France

Storing the World's Information — A 21st Century Crisis (41–UN–3a–E) ..... 1–17 — Marilyn J.Sharrow, University of California, Davis, California, USA

Tomorrow is another Today for University Library Services (41–UN–3b–E) ..... 1–19 — G.G. Allen Curtin University of Technology, Perth, Western Australia

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Session 101 20 August 12:00 — 14:30

Researchers' Need for Audiovisual Media as Material (90-UN-4/AVM-1-E) . 1-21 — Piet Van Wijk, Director of the Film and Science Foundation, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

SECTION OF PARLIAMENTARY LIBRARIES

Session 110 20 August 15:00 — 17:30

Mediating News and Public Opinion to Members of Parliament (56-PAR-1-E) ..... 1-25 — Brit Floistad, Parliamentary Librarian of Norway

Building a Parliamentary Research Capability (88-PAR-2-E) ..... 1-30 — William H. Robinson, Deputy Director and Senior Specialist in Public Policy Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress, Washington, DC, U.S.A.

Collection Development Policies of Parliamentary Libraries (119-PAR-3-E) ..... 1-38 — Ernst Kohl, Deutsehes Bundestag, Bonn, Germany

On the Concept of Development of the National Library of the USSR*)

N. I. Tyulina
senior researcher, Lenin state library of the USSR, Moscow

Long-term planning lately occupies a firm place in the management of national libraries (NL). It is usually realized in the form of strategic plans of development for the five-year period. The State Lenin Library (GBL) also uses this form. However, last time it apporoached the solution of this problem in a new way: it prefaced the regular strategic plan with the note on the general concept of development of the GBL, which esstablishes it's main direction and priorities for the subsequent 20 years. As regards concrete forms of activity, schedule of realization and resources support, they will be established successively on the basis of the general concept in the subsequent strategic plans.

Such a two-stage transition to planning came about because of a number of circumstances, which taken together, called for a substantial revision of the existing order of things.

Firstly, it is the general changes that are taking place in Soviet society today, it's democratization, and growth of national self-consciousness.

One of the manifestations of these changes is the keen interest being shown in national culture and history. This lends particular importance to the memorial mission of the GBL and demands revision of principles and priorities in acquisition of stocks, bibliographic activities, servicing of readers, and scientific and methodological work.

Secondly, it is the forecoming reconstruction of the material and technical base of Soviet libraries, the GBL first of all, the introduction of modern technology and new information carriers into library practice. All these developments open new possibilities not only for a wider cooperation, but for a qualitatively different kind of interaction of libraries in the shared use of resources.

And thirdly, despite the fact that the State has allotted the SLL grants for reconstruction and building, the general economic situation in the country is such that it makes us think that in the following decade the financial and personnel resources of the GBL will be extremely limited. This means that their use must be strictly purpose-oriented in keeping with the precisely established priorities.

Such are the main factors that lie at the basis of the aforementioned concept, and they are the factors, which stipulated the major principles cited in the document. Here follows the statement of these principles.

The first principle. As all NL, the GBL is notable for it's multi-functionality. The richness of it's resources and high qualification of it's personnel permit the Library to develop it's activities along different lines. At the same time these factors impose upon it many diverse duties. As with the other NL, this multifunctionality is the main stumbling-block in the management of the GBL. In order to resolve this issue, the typological approach to the assessment of the Library functions is used in the concept. All these functions are divided into two categories: main and additional. To the main (typological) functions belong those which are adherent to it as to a NL, that is to a library of a special type, moreover these functions cannot be performed by other libraries, because they lack the necessary resources. Additional functions are those that are called into being by particular duties, which were imposed on the GBL in different periods of history. These functions can be performed by other libraries too. The manpower and material resources of the Library shall be distributed and utilized in accordance with this — they shall be concentrated on the realization of the main functions. As regards the additional functions, they will be realized only within the limits of resources, which remain after the realization of the main functions. In the future it will be possible to pass them over to other institutions which are better equipped for the performance of these functions.

Such an approach brings a substantial change into the management of the GBL. Proceeding from it, the typological criterion becomes the principal one in decision-taking on any management action. It means that the expediency of each action should be assessed from the standpoint of it's potential impact on the main functions of the GBL — will it stimulate or, on the contrary, hamper them by diverting the existing resources from them.

The second principle of management of development of the GBL is based on the idea that all it's activities are viewed within the general system of libraries, information bodies and archives, operating in the country. Today they all belong to different departments, a fact that appreciably impeded their interaction with the GBL. In the future, efforts should be directed toward the overcoming of departmental obstacles andthe gradual integration of these institutions, including the GBL, into a general national information system, which would function according to the principle of cooperation on basis of equality.

This principle nas found reflection in the concept of further formation of GBL collections. On of

the major functions of the SLL, as of a NB, is the maximum full acquisition and permanent conservation of collections of domestic and foreign documents. However, until now the SLL realized this duty mainly in respect to printed matter. In the future the formation of it's stocks will be realized on the basis of that concept of the "document", which has to date formed in world library practice — precisely as of information fixed in any carrier and intended for public use.

It is quite obvious that in conditions of the continuously growing volume of the flow of current documents and the multiplication of the number of their forms, the GBL cannot realize the aforementioned function with necessary fullness. This is why the concept presupposes the creation of a system of All-Union specialized NL on the basis of the existing special libraries, archives for documents of certain types and information agencies. The collections of these institutions should be granted memorial status, and bibliographic information and document provision of users should be realized in accordance with principle recognized by all libraries.

The systemic approach to the development of the GBL is also clearly manifest in the function of creation of sources of bibliographic information. Such sources represent the foundation on which the shared use of collections is built. Hence the necessity to maintain full control of all sources of information existing in the country, on the composition of library resources, regardless of the form, which carries the information — be it printed matter, cards or computer output. In the concept great importance is attached to this aspect of the information function of the GBL. The gathering storage and dissemination of data on the sources of secondary information — reference and information publications, book catalogs and card catalogs, databases and data banks — should make the GBL the key to all information resources of the country. With it's help the entire mechanism of the national system of library service in the contemporary reading of the term, will be set in motion, in other words the transition from service based on the holdings as such to service based on information on the holdings will be accomplished.

The systemic approach is also suggested for retrospective bibliographical control of domestic publications (the current national bibliography is the responsibility of the All-Union Book Chamber). Up till now the main form of bibliographic information on the composition of library collections of our country were the union catalogs, based on the territorial principle: All-Union, republican, specialized and city catalogs.

In the future the retrospective bibliographic control of documents according to the language principle will gain equal importance in the satisfaction of needs of society in the field of national culture. Undoubtedly, the leading role here will be played by the NL of the subjects of our federation, However, the GBL should actively participate in this work for the multi-lingual composition of it's stocks and general experience in the field of bibliographic activity already imposes this participation.

It is presupposed that the problem of bibliographic control of exteriorica, the works of emigrants from our country and of foreign publications of our citizens, first of all, will be resolved through the collective efforts of the GBL and the NL of the subjects of the federation. This issue is highly significant for the cause of consolidation of national cultures, and interest in it is exceptionally great. However, here the GBL reckons on cooperation with NL of other countries, which hold the appropriate publications.

And, finally, the systemic approach to the development of the SLL will help solve the problem of the Library's wide availability successively and fully.

For many years now the GBL suffers from overload, which has come about owing to the enormous amount of people who wish to use it's stocks. This situation led to the introduction of administrative limiting measures, which naturally, contradicted the principle of it's wide availability as a public library. But what is still worse is that the contradiction between the memorial character of it's collections and the society's need of using them is becoming more pronounced. In order to allay this contradiction, the GBL should in the overall national system of library services serve as the highest instance, to which people turn mostly in those cases, when the resources of other libraries prove to be insufficient. However, this order of things should be arrived at not through administrative limitations, but through the consolidation of resources of other libraries, free excess to a greater number of libraries and the augmentation of the number of participants of the GBL system. All these developments would open the opportunity for self-regulation of the flow of users for in these conditions they would be able to freely chose the library, the resources and services of which are in keeping with the specific quality of their concrete needs.

The afore-mentioned forms and lines of cooperation of the GBL with other libraries call for the scientific and methodological development of these problems and questions. And it is on precisely these issues that the scientific and methodological activities of the GBL will be concentrated. This will in it's turn entail the necessity of restructuring of the organizational fundamentals of it's activity. The essence of this restructuring lies in the wide use of programme-purposeful planning and financing, and the creation of programme-purpose-oriented organizational structures. The basic element of such structures is identified with the staff of research division of the GBL. The rest of the workers, who will take part in the realization of each concrete programme, will on a temporery basis be drawn from the appropriate functional divisions and from other institutions on the contract basis. This arrangement will permit the organization of temporary teams in keeping with the problem, which is being solved. It will also help to discover new talents and remove those people, who do not demonstrate their value in

scientific pursuits.

It should be mentioned here, that the concept under review, evokes much argument in the Library's collective. The concept has ardent advocates and energetic opponents, and this is only natural since it presupposes the break-down of many stereotypes not only in pragmatic activity, but in professional thinking, too. We hold, that the "touchstone" here will be the first strategic five-year plan to be based on this concept. This plan is meant to launch the realization of the concept, win the support of the entire collective and transpose all arguments from the sphere of discussions to the sphere of pragmatic doings.

*) This report discusses the document "State Lenin Library of the USSR on the turn of the 20th — 21st centuries (concept of development up to year 2010"), prepared by a group of specialists of the SLL, including: N.P.Igumnova (coordinator), I.Y.Bagrova and N.I.Tyulina (executive officers), E.M.Belkovets, N.E.Berezina, R.I.Bogachova, G.I.Vasilenko, A.N.Vostrikov, N.N.Kasparova, A.E.Kotelnikiva, G.L.Levin, E.I.Ratnikova, V.V.Timokhina, L.N.Tikhonova.

Strategic Planning in National Libraries

Maurice B. Line
Information & Library Consultant, Harrogate, UK

INTRODUCTION

Strategic planning is now becoming quite a well established practice in libraries. The need for it, the advantages, the process and the results have been discussed in several articles and books (1), the most recent of which is a detailed manual by Jacob (2). What is different about national libraries that they should deserve special consideration?

As one who has worked on strategic plans with several libraries and private information companies, including three national libraries, I can confirm that ther are differences of a kind that make strategic planning in national libraries both a more necessary and a more difficult operation.

WHAT MAKES PLANNING FOR NATIONAL LIBRARIES DIFFERENT?

In the first place, national libraries are usually much more directly subject to government than other libraries; there may be a body such as a Board between the library and the relevant government department, but there is rarely much real autonomy. This has several consequences.

One is that changes in government policy, especially changes of government, tend to have a direct and immediate influence on the library. For example, a government with a policy of privatization is almost certain to ask critical questions of the library as to which of its activities may be candidates for privatizing. Or government-funded bodies may be urged to earn more of their own keep, partly as a matter of policy, partly to reduce government expenditure. Governments of most political persuasions are now demanding value for money, and want to know not only where the money is going but how effectively and efficiently it is being used. Further, and most often, resources may be suddenly and drastically reduced. What is worse, they may change from year to year in a lergely unpredictable manner. Any of these pressures can come on the library with little warning, and affect its thinking fundamentally; it they all come together (which is by no means unlikely) the effect can be traumatic.

A second difference from other types of library, and a fundamental one, is that national libraries have no clearly defined clientele. It might be argued that this is true also of public libraries, but they have do in fact have a defined clientele, albeit a wide clientele — the whole local community — within which they may have to set priorities. The boundaries of the national library, on the other hand, may be nationwide — indeed, worldwide, since they may serve an international body of scholars. Not only may decisions have to be made as to whom the library is to serve, since it clearly cannot serve everyone, but the absence of a body whom the library has a statutory duty to serve means that there is no-one to help determine the library's role for it, except the government. This may appear to be a desirable freedom, but it is more likely to be a burden; working in conditions of uncertainty is rarely pleasant, and if cuts are made there is often no-one to make the sort of fuss that would be expected in, say, an academic library.

Thirdly, national libraries generelly have international relationships and responsibilities in a way that very few other libraries do. They may well need or wish to link with databases of other national libraries, with which in any case they will usually have quite frequent contacts. They cannot easily go ahead on their own, ignoring international standards.

Fourthly, national libraries cannot (or certainly should not) operate in isolation; they are part of nation's total library and information system, and their choice of functions and the way they are executed may be largely determined by what other libraries do (the converse is of course also true). A report I wrote two years ago (3) showed that there is no single national library or information function that absolutely has to be performed by a national library; every single one be, and in some countries is, carried out by other libraries or the private information sector. There is no point in doing what other bodies are doing well already, or indeed in continuing to do what would be better done elsewhere. The national library of all libraries cannot plan without reference to other libraries and information agencies.

There is also a strong general trend to decentralization in many countries, partly because of an increasing dislike of powerful central bodies, but largely as a result of the possibilities opened up by new technology; it does not matter much where materials are held or where activities take place, since telecommunications can (in principle at any rate) make distance irrelevant.

Finally, national libraries exhibit a much greater variety than any other type of library. Several

lists of national library functions have been published (4); they are by no means identical, but in any case they are all checklists of functions that may be carried out, and almost every national library is carrying out a different selection of them.

HOW CAN NATIONAL LIBRARIES PLAN IN SUCH CONDITIONS?

National libraries have therefore to plan under various pressures from government, often with reduced financial resources, for an uncertain clientele, with a wide range of possible functions, and in the context of the rest of the nation's library and information activities. This certainly makes planning in national libraries different; it may make it seem almost impossible. How can sensible plans be constructed in conditions of such uncertainty?

One obvious answer is "with great difficulty" — but this does not make the necessity any less. If national libraries are not clear as to whom they are serving, what they are doing, why they are doing it, how well they are doing it, and what they intend to do in the next few years, they are unlikely to be able to make a convincing case for resources to the government; they are more likely to find ther resources savagely reduced, or have tasks allocated to them that they do not want to perform. If the library does not decide what business it is in and where it is goind the government may decide for it.

Every national library must be governed by some government statute that lays down what it should do, but this is usually worded in fairly general terms, and leaves the library a good deal of freedom. In any case, it is necessary to think through what exactly is involved in the execution of duties that may have been laid down many years ago when circumstances were different. It may turn out that the statute is in need of revision.

Like other types of library, national libraries have undoubtedly given much thought in the past about clients and services, and particularly about prioriries. What is different about strategic plans is that all these thoughts have to be precisely articulated and written down. In the process ideas that seemes reasonable (or perhaps unreasonable or impracticable) may emerge as something different; every library that has gone through the process has found that its thinking has been greatly sharpened and often significantly chaged. It is not irrelevant to note that when I write an article I usually find that the process of articulation at the least adds clarity to my thinking, and sometimes the logic of the argument leads me to conclusions that I did not expect. Sharing my ideas with others also helps to shape and improve thinking. This must be a common experience.

AUDIENCES FOR NATIONAL LIBRARY STRATEGIC PLANS

Because of its national role and its need to relate to other libraries, the strategic plan of a national library has a wider audience than in the case of other libraries, and it is of wider interest. The government is a main audience, and this may make a difference to the way it is written. Other libraries are another audience, and this makes publication or at least wide availability of the plan desirable. The library's own staff are the third audience.

All these factors make it likely that a rather longer time may be needed to construct a plan than is usually the case. For this reason if no other, the library should not delay starting the process, otherwise it may be required by the government to prepare one quickly, and this may result in a plan that is less than satisfactory.

It goes without saying that the library's plan must take account of government policies; it may also need to conform to the format and style of other strategic plans prepared by governmentfunded bodies.

CHOICES AND PRIORITIES

Any library should state at the beginning of its strategic plan whom it is serving, but for a national library it is an absolute necessity. It is also, as stated, much more difficult, since very difficult choices may have to be made. For example, is its main clientele the general public, industry, the research community (and if so, in the humanities only or over all subjects; and national or international), or what? Or does it wish to spread its responsibilities over all these sectors?

Once the clientele to be served has been decided, the services to be given to it have to be determined. It is easy to look at present services and see how they can be extended, but it is better to start by listing all possible services that might be given, includung sone unrelated to any present service, and then cut them down to size. In the process it will often appear that some new services are more valuable than some existing ones.

Whatever is decided, what are the consequences, for acquisitions, staff, equipment and services? What resources are needed? If these are honestly worled out, it may become claer that it is not practically possible to do what the library wants to do within its present resources. In such a case, either a convincing case has to be made for more resources, or cuts have to be made. In either case, priorities have to be determined, as do "negative priorities" — what might be cut out if cuts prove necessary.

PUMP-PRIMING AND BUSINESS PLANS

Some potential new services may be judged able to support themselves from income in due course, but require "pump-priming" — an initial investment of money, which should be recouped within, say, three years. In such cases it is necessary to construct a business plan, which will show estimated expenditure and income year by year over the three years.

Even if no money is being earned, the preparation of business plans can be an excellent discipline; it makes staff conscious of costs in a way that they have probably not been used to, and can therefore form a valuable component of strategic plans.

FOLLOWING UP

Strategic plans cannot be static documents; they need revision every two or three years, so that they become rolling plans. But a strategic plan can become no more than that — just a plan — unless thare is some programme to ensure that it is executed.

The best way to do this is to prepare operational plans for each activity of the library in the coming year, spelling out exactly what tasks are to be undertaken, who is responsible for each task, and when it is expected to be finished. Such operational plans can easily be monitored in a way that a five-year plan cannot.

EFFECTS, INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL

Strategic plans should be written with all the audiences in mind: government, other libraries, and the libraries' own staff — and other national libraries can also be expected to take some interest. Reactions can be expected (if there are none, it is rather worrying). At the worst, others should be much better informed about the national library is doing and where it is going.

But much of the permanent value should be in the effect of the planning process on staff (5). This requires that many if not most of them are involved in the construction of the plan, in however small a way. Unless this happens, much of the benefit will be lost; for plans come and go, but the planning mentality needs to become a regular feature of the library and its management.

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Strategic Planning in National Libraries

Patricia Donlon
National Library of Ireland

ABSTRACT

The publication of a stragic plan has become increasingly common in industry and the private sector. In recent times more and more National Libraries have been engaged in a strategic planning process.

This article looks at the reasons for this and suggests methods and procedures for the structuring of strategic plans. It does so on the basis that a stragic plan is a summary of «where you are», «where you want to be» and «how to get there».

Libraries worldwide have been faced with the challenge of the century, i.e. survival and resurgence or recession and annihilation in a rapidly changing environment where all institutions are forced to become more cost-effective.

Traditionally, the storehouses of culture and heritage, national libraries, more so than academic equivalents the University libraries, have been slow to meet this challenge. The reasons for this are frequently historical or environmental the roots of many of our national libraries in the European context being buried in libraries of Royal patronage with a changing environment and constituency and uneven State funding.

University and academic libraries have, by and large, a clearly defined role or mission and an easily indentifiable and articulate clientele, all too eager to voice opinions or grievances if the traditional service of the institution is not up to scratch. On the other hand, national libraries have no such clearly identifiable client groups and no obvious channels for communication of complaint or approval.

Outside the confines of the library environment, Government departments and funding agencies have been responding to the mood of the moment: management, cost-effectiveness and rationalisation have been the key words of the eighties and will continue to be important words in the nineties. The result is a movement towards the Manager/Librarian as opposed to the more traditional role of Scholar/Librarian with more and more national libraries facing the challenge of the times and putting in place a strategic plan for those institutions thereby charting the way forward for several years.

Several major national libraries have been through the first five year phase of strategic planning: five years being the usual time-span thought possible for any accurate forward predictions Probably the best known of these is the British Library's strategic plan, first published in 1985, under the title *Advancing with Knowledge: British Library's Strategic Plan. 1985–1990.* 1

Other institutions such as the National Archives of Canada, the National Library of New Zealand and the National Library of Wales have also been active in the publication of strategic or corporate plans. The kernel for all such plans can be found in the management dilemma facing most national librarians of how best to reconcile service to today's users against the responsibility to preserve a nation's collections for future generations and the added dilemma of achieving a balance between raising revenue through charging for services against the philosophy of freedom of information.

Strategic planning is a systematic approach to the responsibility of managing a library, which seeks to define that library's role or mission and to relate it to its environment in a way that will assume succecc. It is a blueprint or chart of the forward progress of an institution in a planned, cohesive fashion — a declaration of intent and a yardistik for assessment. It aims to be pro-active and not re-active, to avoid surprises and to marshal support from both staff and funding agencies to progress in a united way. In summary, a strategic plan is a statement of «where you are», «where you want to be» and «how to get there». Whilst in essence, any strategic plan must be both aspirational and inspirational, it is clearly necessary to stress that to be of any value, it must be realistic and achievable, or else the result will be disappointment, disillusion and even disenfranchisement.

I present this as a project for the nineties and so it is. But, the problems which led to the strategic planning solution, have their roots in a more recent past. That many European national libraries were inward looking and frozen in time was a problem first presented in 1958 at the UNESCO seminar on national libraries held in Vienna where Sir Frank Francis commented: «I wish I could point to instances in Europe where a great national library, with the burden of the past lying heavily on its shoulders, had readjusted itself to modern conditions». Almost a decade later, he was still to comment «Excessive interest in the past has sometimes been an inhibiting factor in the true appreciation by

librarians of the nature of their job. Indeed, I am certain that many of the great libraries of the world have been so turned in on themselves and so devoted to the past that they have been tardy in appreciating what was required of them and slow to model their policies on up-to-date ideas.» [2] Whilst it is true that there are some national libraries which continue to exist as islands, the majority today are learning from each other and co-operating on a much broader scale. One clear way of responding to the challenge of change is in the implementation of a strategic plan.

There are three crucial questions to be asked by any institution embarking on such a plan and they are why?, when? and now?

Why have a Strategic Plan?

The reasons and objectives of strategic planning have already been touched on. But to reiterate: the purpose of any strategic plan must be to provide a bench-mark for planning, development and evaluation of the library service; to set goals and objectives for implementing the plan; to note constraints, whether financial, physical fabric or personnel on the current service and to set priority needs in a market-led economy. The benefits of strategic planning are obvious — the effects should enhance status, encourage confidence in the institution from funding agency, the library community and the users. The additional pluses are increased commitment on the side of the staff, responding to a clearly charted direction, and the growth and development of human potential to its fullest degree.

When to start a Strategic Plan?

When should an institution embark on the strategic planning process? There is no perfect moment to embark on any project, no auspicious stars to seek. Any institution striving for funds in today's competitive market must be aware that sooner rather than later is the obvious if somewhat pat reply. It is never too late to begin the exercise, but it is obviously easier if it can be undertaken in a calm and thoughtful fashion rather than in the stress of conflict.

Very often the need for a strategic plan emerges as a reaction to management on an *ad hoc* basis from a library that spends its time reacting to crises. Another reason for embarking on such an exercise is to provide all library staff with a consistent view of what it is the institution is trying to achieve. Sometimes it can take a major crisis or scandal to alert the library management that something needs to be done about forward planning. Sometimes it takes the arrival of a new Director to set the winds of change blowing through an institution. Frequently, to get the strategic process under way, a catalyst is needed, in the person of an outside consultant or *agent provocateur*.

How to construct a Strategic Plan?

Many institutions in the past have sought help and guidance when confronted by seemingly insurmountable difficulties. The road to libraries good intentions is paved with library reviews. Very often in the past, library reviews were deemed as an end in themselves: the considered opinion and wisdom of one or other library guru. Sometimes it is necessary to first survey the scene with just such a reviewing project before setting off on a plan of action, but it is essential that one should lead naturally to the other. The danger with simply reviewing a library is that for the institution reviewed, the frank appraisals may be shocking and the recommendations apparently unattainable. The best library reviews, summarise with a plan of action for proscriptive actions and usually today, the construction of a strategic plan.

Another method used by managers embarking on such planning action is the application of a SWOT analysis by a representative crosssection of that library's personnel. SWOT is the acronym for analysis under the headings:

Strength

Weaknesses

Opportunities

Threats

It may be useful at this point to illustrate from practical experience. The National Library of Ireland embarked on its path to strategic planning late in 1989 when Dr Maurice Line was invited to assist. Acting as catalyst or facilitator to the group, he conducted the SWOT analysis, leading gently, prodding viciously as needs be, but ultimately getting staff to vent frustrations, to voice opinions and ultimately to pinpoint the core problems facing the institution. With his guidance, a task force was set up to analyse the environment — political, economic, social and technological. Using the information gathered at the SWOT analysis session, a framework for the plan emerged with the one premise that good strategies would be built on strengths and would exploit opportunities. In order to chart its way

forward an institution needs to know where its going, so the drafting of a mission statement became the first exercise. A mission statement is an organisation's declared statement of ground rules, shared beliefs and values and attitudes to innovation.

It is the very *raison d'etre* of the institution and is important in this exercise as it eases the management team into the process of thinking strategically and it introduces a structure. In the case of the National Library of Ireland, the mission statement hangs on three pivotal points i.e. collections, services and buildings.

As I write this, we are preparing the document for publication and it consists of an executive summary document highlighting key strategies and issues, which is seen as a prime marketing document. The format for the full strategic document is a mission statement followed by chapters on environment, services, collections, buildings, staff development, marketing and public relations and finance. Throughout the entire process, the staff worked closely with our consultant in the structuring and creation of the plan. Together with staff at middle and senior levels, a provisional structure was agreed and through a series of workshops designated staff then began to draft chapters. Drafts were reviewed at intervals of two months and the structure amended as necessary. Comments and suggestions by other staff were incorporated where possible. The process was co-ordinated by a senior member of the management team who acted as editor for the plan. It can thus be said that the plan has taken into account the views of the entire staff and therefore carries their commitment to its implementation.

All of that may sound deceptively simple, but it is not so. Strategic planning must be undertaken with great determination, vigour and good heart. There are difficulties to be faced — difficulties of attitude. Many, even top, managers, lack an awareness of the situation in their libraries and are often overwhelmed by the power of the *status quo*. Staff can tend to get caught up in the day-to-day problems and are incapable of seeing outside their small domain, let alone plan five years ahead. Changing direction can be seen as a criticism of past methods or personnel and will be resisted. The enormity of a task can often be so daunting that the only action taken is no action. The environment in the national library can mitigate against such modern management techniques with the scholarly community resisting the methods and what they can regard as intrusion of the management ethos.

Aspirations expressed in the strategic plan can be mistaken as blueprint for immediate action and may lead to disillusionment and frustration. There is also the danger that once committed to paper, this plan can be regarded as though engraved on tablets of stone, allowing for no change or flexibility or adaptation to the changing environment. Once the plan is formulated it must not be relegated to a shelf, to be pointed to in pride, as a fine publication. The success, or not, of a strategic plan lies in the completion immediately of operational plans with clearly defined and attainable goals and objectives, in other words, «who is to do what», «how» and «by when». Once begun, a momentum is created and the plan ceases to be a static document and becomes instead a rolling plan which can then be revised every three years.

If there is one key attribute which I would deem essential before beginning such an exercise, it is patience. To achieve change in any organisation you need a clear vision, endless supplies of patience to see that vision realised, wisdom to understand that you cannot advance on too many fronts (only circus performers can juggle lots of balls simultaneously and get away with it!) and the appreciation that the only right time to do anything is the appropriate time. Garnish the above with a generous sprinkling of good humour and you have a recipe for success.

I would, however, like to end on a cautionary note by quoting Peter Scott, the national Librarian of New Zealand when he wrote on the business of strategic planning: «I do not consider it alone as a magical panacea. It can be a very important management tool, but it is not the only one and it must be underpinned by good standard management practices such as good communication, and having the right people. It also of course will not provide vision, it simply serves as the vehicle for conveying that vision which you may have of the future and the means for an orderly translation of your hopes into reality.» 3

1. *Advancing with knowledge — The British Library Strategic Plan* 1985-1990. London: The British Library, 1985.

2. Sir Frank Francis, «Let the Past and Future Fire thy Brain», *The Cornell Library Conference — Papers read at the Dedication of the Central Libraries:* October, 1962, (Ithaca, 1964). p.11.

3. Peter G. Scott, «Strategic perspectives — new directions for the National Library». New Zealand Libraries, 45, No. 7, September, 1987, p.141.

University Libraries in the USSR

Vyacheslav V. Mosyagin
Director of the Moscow University Scientific Library, USSR

Abstract

This paper suggests some general characteristics of University libraries in the USSR. The oldest and the largest libraries are enumerated. A typical structure of University library is detailed. The main attention in the paper is paid to the today problems in acquiring books and computerisation of library processes.

In the Soviet Union there are over 900 higher-education establishments, 62 of which enjoy university status. The history of university libraries is inextricably linked to that of the universities themselves; their foundation usually coincided, but sometimes took place a few years apart. For example, Moscow University opened in 1755, and its library in 1756; Vilnius University was founded in 1579, and its library in 1570. The country's oldest universities are: Vilnius, which was founded in 1579, Lvov (1661), Moscow (1755), Tartu (1802), Kazan (1804), Kharkov (1805), Leningrad (1819), Kiev (1834), Odessa (1865), Chernovtsy (1875), Tomsk (1880), Saratov (1909), Rostov (1915), and Perm (1916).

Immediately after 1917 a wave of new universities came into being: in 1918 Voronezh, Dniepropetrovsk, Irkutsk and Nizhny Novgorod; in 1919 Baku and Latvia; and in 1920 the Far East, Yerevan, Tashkent and the Urals. They continued to be established right up to the 1970s and occasionally on a somewhat shaky basis, by simply renaming existing colleges.

University libraries have much in common in the way they are organised but differ considerably in the size and value of their collections, which can contain anything from 350,000 to 8 million volumes. The number of regular visitors can be from 3,000 to 65,000. The largest university libraries are those in Moskow (8 million volumes, 65,000 regular visitors), Leningrad (6,3 million 37,000), Vilnius (4.8 million, 23,000), Kazan (4.8 million, 20,000), Tartu (4.3 million, 18,000), Tomsk (3.7 million, 17,000), Kiev (3,5 million, 26,000), Tbilisi (3.5 million, 20,000), Odessa (3,5 million, 16,000), Kharkov (3.4 million, 18,000), Tashkent (3.3 million, 20,000), and Irkutsk (3.3 million, 15,000).

In the course of their development, university libraries have gradually acquired a centralised organisational structure. In the past, a university had a central, and then separate faculty, departmental and student libraries. The central library would contain literature relevant to all research subjects at the university; faculties and departments would have a narrower selection relevant to their own subjects, while the student library would contain only textbooks. Such a system hindered all fields of work: there were restrictions on use of libraries by various categories of reader, while time and money was wasted on duplication of purchase and registration.

Centralisation is now the rule. All library departments in a university are administered by a single body — the directorate. Orders and registration and other functions, and also finance, are all centrally managed. A library will contain, as a rule, the following departments: orders, with sections handling Soviet and foreign literature, stock-keeping, book exchanges; registration, with cataloguing and classification sections; storage; service, with sections for book issue to home and reading-hall users; textbooks; inter-library transfer; enquiries and bibliography; book maintenance and restoration. Libraries possessing rare books and manuscripts have special departments for research work with them. For the past few years a number of libraries have been working to computerise their enquiries and bibliographigal services.

The Soviet Union's university libraries employ more than 6,500 people, 63% of whom possess higher education and 4% specialised secondary. The reason for this somewhat unimpressive level of qualifications, and the large number of employees, is the low level of automation and computerisation. The majority of employees with higher education are graduates of various university faculties, while some have degress in librarianship from the relevant faculties of cultural institutes. Unfortunately, university graduates have no training in librarianship, while those from cultural institutes lack specialised scientific knowledge. Only seven universities (Azerbaijan, Vilnius, Dagestan, Latvia, Turkmenia, Kishinev, and Yerevan) offer specialised courses in librarianship and bibliography, and to improve the level of staff qualifications such courses need to be offered by the humanities and science faculties of many more.

Naturally, the principal function of university libraries in the Soviet Union, as of all fundamental

research libraries, is to satisfy their users'needs for material as rapidly and fully as possible. All general research libraries currently share the same operating environment: rapid advances in learning and increases in the amount of printed material, a combination of narrower specialisation and greater integration of knowledge, and the constant appearance of new trends within science.

At the same time, university libraries in the USSR have to perform a number of duties that their equivalents in most other countries do not. Since publishing houses and the book trade are unable to meet demand for textbooks and related literature, the libraries themselves have to ensure that all atudents receive one copy each of the textbooks they need. The library at Moscow University, for example, buys up to 1,000 copies of some publications in disciplines studied at several faculties. Ten percent of all its stocks are accounted for by textbooks. Extensive use is made of the library loan system; approximately the same number of readers use it as the reading halss (although in the latter four times more books are issued).

Because interesting fiction and popular literature are in such short supply, many university libraries try to cater to not only research but also leisure requirements of students and staff members. Such books make up about 4% of all those acquired by Moscow University's library.

Over past years difficulties in obtaining books and filling staff vacancies have multiplied. Here it is worth focusing on the acquisition of Soviet and foreign literature, because the practice in the Soviet Union differs strongly from that in other countries.

Until approximately 1986 there was little problem in acquiring Soviet literature. A very limited number of book and periodical titles was published, and prices were low. The centralised book order and purchase system, via what were called "library collection points", worked reasonably well. In addition, 32 university libraries were automatically entitled to one copy of everything published in the country. The Moscow University library receives a free copy of the All-Union Book Chamber catalogue, which serves as the basis for further orders. Over the past few years the number of books and journals has increased significantly, which is of course a good thing. But their prices have also risen, a number of new publishers (about whose products little information is available) have appeared, and now many publications are not available via the centralised order system. The result is that university libraries have to decide how to best use their meagre financial resources to replenish and update their stocks.

The principal difficulty in obtaining foreign works that Soviet libraries face is not new — inconvertibility of the rouble. Hard currency for purchases is allocated by the State in very small amounts, and some new university libraries don't receive any at all. Whether this situation will improve is anyone's guess. On the one hand the state monopoly over hard currency is gradually dissolving, while on the other libraries and universities have little opportunity to earn it.

A great deal of attention is paid to the international book exchange system. Because of the shortage of hard currency, for Soviet libraries this is not only a way of exchanging publications but, first and foremost, of expanding opportunities to obtain foreign literature for hard currency.

Moscow University has about 1,000 parther libraries; every year it despatches 25,000 items of literatyre, and receives over 10,000. Over 40% of all foreign literature received every year comes via the international exchange system.

When describing the way any library functions today, the subject of computerisation inevitably arises. In this respect, unfortunately, university and other major libraries in the USSR have fallen way behind world standarts. The main reason: the country's lack of reliable computer technology, plus misguided information policies. About 15-20 years ago, most financing went to setting up major centres such as the All-Union Institute and International Centre for scientific and technical information, rather than to large libraries. As a result there is a gulf between primary sources of information, ie books and journals, and places of access to secondary sources, ie bibliographical data on these books and journals.

Only in the past few years have some libraries in the Soviet Union begun to acquire computers. Moreover, even major libraries at institutes of higher education are encountering specific difficulties — their computerisation is not regarded as a priority by college administrations, which mistakenly believe that it can be handled in-between other jobs at the college computer centre. Nobody seems to understand that the organisation and use of large data banks, and back-up for a considerable number of terminals, requires a specialised library computer network.

Despite the difficulties, many libraries are trying to introduce new technology, and computerisation is proceeding at the universities of Vilnius, Voronezh, Grodno, Kazan, Latvia, Novosibirsk, Tartu, and elsewhere.

We can take the Moscow University library as an example. Since 1987 a department with expert programmers and librarians has been working to computerise the enquiries and bibliographical service. The aim is to equal the achievements of many other universities around the world. So far a bibliographical data storage system, using the MARC format, has been developed, and can search for any part of an entry and key words. This entails more than straightforward adoption of one of the world's top software systems. This is the first time that MARC has been adapted for Russian-speaking users, and a vast amount of programming has been required. All new volumes received that are published in 1990 and after are entered into an electronic catalogue which, together with the search system, serve as the basis for computerisation of various library functions. Unfortunately, so

far the library has insufficient equipment and terminals to be able to ensure availability of all the bibliographical entries. When librarians do have enough equipment in the future, readers will be able to use a full electronic catalogue starting with 1990.

In general, if we analyse the shortcomings and problems of university and other libraries in the Soviet Union, then todav priority goes to improved equipment, supplies and financing. Just 5-6 years ago the main shortcoming of libraries, in my opinion, was the inordinate influence of ideology. Much political literature was stored in special restricted-access archives, on ideological grounds parts of catalogues were closed to readers, and the works of the country's official politicians were bought up by libraries in vast and unnecessary quantities. It's pleasant to note that this is no more, and that the majorite of serious libraries are not seeking to accomplish any ideological aims. This shortcoming has, I hope, receded into the past for good. Current problems concern money - not enough equipment, low wages, the need to quickly build new premises for the majority of libraries. The answer, of course, lies in the revival of our country's economy.

Le rôle culturel des bibliothèques universitaires

Michel Melot
Vice-président du Conseil supérieur des bibliothèques, ancien directeur de la Bibliothèque publique d'information au Centre Georges Pompidou, Paris, France

ABSTRACT

Le développement particulier des bibliothèques en France rend plus sensible l'opposition traditionnelle entre bibliothèque universitaire et bibliothèque de lecture publique. Des expériences originales y sont menées pour la réduire: insertion de sections de bibliothèques universitaires de premier cycle dans des bibliothèques municipales, ou, à l'inverse, implantation d'une annexe de bibliothèque municipale au sein d'un campus universitaire, L'auteur argumente en faveur de ces rapprochements en analysant les enquêtes qui font apparaitre les pratiques de lecture et les besoins des étudiants.

Les institutions opposent traditionnellement les bibliothèques universitaires et les bibliothèques de lecture publique. Nous constatons qu'une telle opposition est aujourd'hui de plus en plus contestable et qu'elle est d'ailleurs contestée, dans les pratiques sinon dans les discours, par les étudiants eux-mêmes.

Les universités sont des collectivités importantes, composées de milliers, souvent même de dizaine de milliers de personnes, qui sont amenées à y vivre de facon presqu'autonome. Leur population éprouve les mêmes besoins que les autres communautés, et l'on voit bien que les étudiants se sont organisés pour avoir leurs compagnies théatrales, leurs expositions, leurs clubs. Il est paradoxal que de telles communautés, dont la consommation culturelle est particulièrement forte, soient généralement dépourvues de bibliothèque, au sens où on l'entend pour les villes ou les quartiers, c'est-à-dire, une bibliothèque de lecture publique.

On comprend bien la raison de cette absence: la bibliothèque universitaire est, ou devrait être, le centre de la vie universitaire. Elle joue le rôle de bibliothèque générale et dispense de tout autre lieu de lecture publique. Nous sommes donc amenés à nous poser deux questions: la bibliothéque universitaire joue-t-elle réellement le rôle de bibliothèque de lecture publique dans l'université? Et surtout, est-il souhaitable qu'elle le joue? Notre réponse à ces deux questions sera plutôt négative, mais la question est loin d'être close.

I. L'opposition entre bibliothèques universitaires et bibliothèques de lecture publique en France

L'évolution des bibliothèques francaises est aujourd'hui particulièrement intéressante. Après une longue période de stagnation, elles connaissent depuis un peu plus de dix ans une modernisation rapide et une forte croissance. Ce mouvement, lié à l'augmentation du budget du ministère de la culture et à la décentralisation des pouvoirs de l'Etat dans les collectivités territoriales a concerné essentiellement les bibliothèques de lecture publique. Les bibliothèques universitaires, qui dépendent du ministère de l'éducation nationale, n'ont pas bénéficié, dans la même période, d'une croissance comparable. Aujourd'hui un écart important s'est creusé entre l'image moderne et dynamique des bibliothèques publiques et celle, demeurée traditionnelle et insuffisante, des bibliothèques universitaires. Le ministère de l'éducation nationale a entrepris, depuis 1990, de rattraper ce retard et consacre un effort budgétaire important à l'extension et à la modernisation des bibliothèques universitaires. Ainsi la comparaison entre les deux types de bibliothèques est-elle une question brûlante et prend parfois des allures de compétition.

Les bibliothèques universitaires, bien qu' insuffisantes, sont pourtant mieux organisées que les bibliothèques de lecture publique: elles sont encadrées de personnels plus compétent (15% d'encadrement supérieur contre 2,5% en lecture publique), leurs systèmes informatiques sont plus homogènes, le prêt entre bibliothèques y est beaucoup plus développé etc. Cependant, elles ne connaissent qu'à peine les développements modernes qui ont fait une partie du succès et de l'originalité des bibliothèques publiques francaises: la qualité des nouvelles architectures, l'importance prise par les activités d'animation culturelle (expositions didactiques, organisations de conférences, de tables rondes, de débats publics, de fêtes du livre, de prix littéraires etc.), et l'ouverture très large sur l'audiovisuel (discothèques, prêt

de cassettes vidéo, projections de films etc.).

L'exemple de la Bibliothèque publique d'information, au Centre Georges Pompidou, qui fut, à son ouverture en 1977, la première grande bibliothèque publique très moderne en France, entièrement en accès libre, ouverte le soir et le dimanche, dans une architecture spectaculaire, très bien équipée pour toutes les nouvelles technologies, demeure encore aujourd'hui instructif. On attendait quatre mille lecteurs chaque jours: il en vient douze mille. Elle était principalement destinée à un public non étudiant, que le fondateur, Jean-Pierre Seguin, appelait "le grand public curieux ou cultivé"[1]. L'ambition de J.-P. Seguin était de faire "une bibliothèque universitaire pour les non universitaires". ces quatre mille non-universitaires viennent effectivement chaque jour à la B.P.I. Hélas, pourrait-on dire, il y vient, en plus, huit mille étudiants. Ce phénomène d'accaparement par les étudiants des bibliothèques de lecture publique s'est reproduit en France partout où se sont reconstruites des bibliothèques de lecture publique modernes et attractives.

Il est donc naturel de dire, en France que le succès de la lecture publique (le nombre de personnes inscrites en bibliothèque publique est passé de 12 à 17% en moyenne nationale de 1981 à 1989) est largement dû aux insuffisances des bibliothèques universitaires. Je ne pense pas que cette explication soit suffisante et je suis prêt à parier que si les bibliothèques universitaires francaises avaient été excellentes, l'essor des bibliothèques publiques n'en aurait pas été moins grand.

Les enquêtes nous apprennent que les étudiants constituaient, en 1978, 48% du public de la B.P.I. Il passe à 53% en 1982 et à 58% en 1988[2]. Si l'on y ajoute les enseignants et les élèves de l'enseignement secondaire, le milieu éducatif occupe plus des trois-quarts des places de la bibliothèque. Mais, les mêmes enquêtes nous enseignent aussi que les étudiants utilisent largement la discothèque, les vidéos ou le laboratoire de langue, tous services qu'on ne rencontre pas dans les bibliothèques universitaires.

Au-delà du déficit des possibilités d'acceuil des bibliothèques universitaires, il faudrait donc constater aussi que les étudiants n'y trouvent pas tout ce qu'ils recherchent dans une bibliothéque et accorder notre attention à un chiffre tout aussi significatif: 17% des étudiants qui fréquentent la B.P.I. ne fréquentent pas du tout leur bibliothèque universitaire et 60% fréquentent les deux. Il faut rapporcher ces chiffres de ceux des enquêtes des bibliothèques universitaires[3] qui nous apprennent qu'en France, en 1988, 40% des étudiants ne fréquentent pas de bibliothèque universitaire et que, en revanche, entre 30% et 60% de lecteurs assidus des bibliothèques universitaires de Paris fréquentent aussi assidûment la Bibliothèque publique du Centre Pompidou. Ces chiffres nous enseignent que, loin de se substituer à la bibliothèque universitaire, et n'en être que le palliatif, comme on a trop tendance à l'analyser en France, la bibliothèque publique répond à d'autres besoins, à d'autres activités.

II. Le rapprochement des bibliothèques universitaires et des bibliothèques de lecture publique en France: deux expériences originales.

Compte tenu de la situation francaise qui met ce phénomène en évidence, deux réponses originales sont actuellement mises en oeuvre dont il sera intéressant de suivre l'évolution. L'une consiste à mettre des sections de bibliothèques universitaires à l'intérieur de bibliothèques municipales. L'autre consiste à faire l'inverse, et à installer une annexe de la bibliothèque municipale à l'intérieur du campus universitaire. Ces dispositifs posent des problèmes plus politiques que techniques, l'autorité des deux types de bibliothèques étant distinctes, un accord est nécessaire, dans lequel chacun des deux partenaires, en l'occurence la ville et l'université, doit trouver son intérêt pour s'engager financièrement.

La France connait un accroissement énorme des effectifs étudiants, qui passeront de 1,2 M. en 1990 à prés de 2 M en l'an 2000. Les universités ont donc tendance à éclater hors du campus et à installer des sections dans des villes de moindre imporance. De leur côté les villes sont très désireuses de voir s'implanter chez elles ces antennes universitaires qui retiennent sur place une population jeune et qualifiée. On dénombre aujourd'hui environ soixante-dix "délocalisations universitaires" de ce type. Il y en a sans doute beaucoup plus, qui ne sont pas contrôlées. Encore faut-il en effet que ce mouvement d'implantations nouvelles soit organisé et que, en particulier, de nouvelles annexes de la bibliothèque universitaire y trouvent place immédiatement, avec des collections spécialisées et du personnel compétent. Le plus souvent les moyens manquent pour les créer de toute pièce et la ville propose à l'université d'utiliser le cadre et le personnel de la bibliothèque municipale existante.

Cette solution est intéressante pour tout le monde mais pose aussi des problèes nouveaux. Doit-on, d'abord, séparer les fonds pédagogiques et de recherche nécessaire aux enseignements universitaires du fonds générale de la bibliothèque municipale? Tantôt ils sont mis à part, avec une salle spéciale, tantôt ils sont intégrés au fonds général. Cette seconde solution est plus risquée, car le déséquilibre des fonds dans certaines disciplines est apparent, elle inquiète donc le personnel bibliothécaire et le public habituel de la bibliothèque, qui se sent envahi, mais elle présente l'intérêt de ne pas isoler les pratiques de lecture des étudiants de celles des autres lecteurs, ce qui semble être une demande des étudiants, et leur offre un environnement plus riche. Le public habituel, profitera aussi des fonds spécialisés (en fait, il s'agit surtout de premiers cycles, donc d'un niveau accessible à beaucoup, et dans des disciplines comme le droit ou la gestion, qui peuvent avoir un intérêt général) et des services nouveaux comme l'interrogation de bases de données ou le prêt entre bibliothèques. Ainsi le mélange entre bibliothèque universitaire et bibliothèque de lecture publique est-il complet., du

moins à ce niveau encore général et dans certaines disciplines.

L'expérience inverse est beaucoup plus rare. Seule la ville de Saint-Etienne, qui est déjà le lieu d'une université financiée par l'Etat, a décidé de financer sur son budget municipal une annexe de lecture publique intégrée dans les bâtiments universitaires, au sein donc du campus, quoique son administration relève de la ville soit totalement distincte de l'université. Si cette formule est moins répandue, c'est que l'on en voit moins l'intérêt "politique" pour la ville, qui fait là un acte généreux pour rendre la vie des étudiants plus agréable. On trouvera en effet dans cette annexe de la bibliothèque municipale toutes les collections générales, les magazines de loisir, les services d'information culturelle et d'animation, les documents audiovisuels qui sont particuliers à la lecture publique. De plus, tous les catalogues des bibliothèques de la ville de Saint-Etienne, y compris celles des autres écoles, ou celle du musée sont reliés avec l'université dans un même réseau informatique. Cette action est donc d'autant plus remarquable et bien adaptée au problème de la lecture publique dans l'université, car la solution inverse (la bibliothèque universitaire dans la bibliothèque municipale) ne peut s'appliquer qu'à des antennes ou à des sections de premier niveau. L'expérience de Saint-Etienne est encore en chantier, et il sera intéressant d'en suivre les résultats, mais son succès ne fait aucun doute.

Toutes ces tentatives ont pour effet de rendre poreuse la cloison entre bibliothèques universitaires et bibliothèques de lecture publique. Ce serait pourtant une position excessive et malheureuse que de vouloir les confondre. Il est clair que les bibliothèques universitaires ont leur mission propre, de pédagogie et de recherche, leurs collections de plus en plus éclatées sur les sites des enseignements et des instituts de recherche spécialisés. On connait même à Paris une université qui n'a pas de bibliothèque centrale (Paris VII). La fonction de lecture publique, qui doit aussi, de toute évidence, être assurée dans un campus, devrait donc l'être dans un lieu spécialisé. Les "college libraries" ou les bibliothèques spécialisées dans les niveaux "undergraduates" remplissent souvent cette tâche, mais les fonctions d'animation culturelle et de "mediathèque" y sont moins développées que dans les bibliothèques de lecture publique en France. Or, ce sont ces activités extra-universitaires qui y attirent les étudiants.

III. Les conditions de la lecture publique en milieu universitaire

Pour plusieurs raisons, il me semble plus efficace que les fonctions de lecture publique soient assurées par une administration différente de celle de l'université et dans un cadre autonome par rapport à elle.

D'abord, pour des raisons d'éthique. La bibliothèque publique doit être un lieu d'indépendance, y compris vis-à-vis des enseignements officiels. L'université est une institution qui doit respecter des règles strictes, ou se jouent, tant entre les professeurs qu'entre les étudiants, des enjeux considérables de pouvoir. Ce n'est pas le libre espace de lecture, de rencontre et de réflection que peut représenter une bibliothèque publique. Ne peut on souhaiter que l'annexe de lecture publique, d'accès gratuit, soit le lieu de rencontre entre jeunes étudiants et non-étudiants dans des cursus distints de ceux de l'université, ou d'adultes en formation continue, bref, ouvert à tous les publics dans l'université?

Ensuite pour des raisons pratiques. Les collections, évidemment, sont très différentes. Il n'y a aucune discothèque dans aucune bibliothèque universitaire francaise, ce qui peut paraitre paradoxal lorsqu'on sait l'importance majeure de la culture musicale des jeunes, qui fait que la discothèque est, au contraire, la section souvent la plus active d'une bibliothèque de lecture publique. Les magazines de loisir, les bandes dessinées occupent peu de place dans les bibliothèques universitaires. Ce n'est pas à la bibliothèque universitaire que les minorités ethniques ou les groupes culturels retrouvent leur identité en consultant des films sur leur pays d'origine ou leur littérature populaire nationale.

Enfin pour des raisons d'efficacité sociale. L'université, qu'on le veuille ou non, demeure et doit deumeurer la suite de l'école. Les pratiques de lecture y seront toujours connotées par l'application de programmes et des usages normatifs. On sait que les échecs scolaires sont majoritairement liés au rejet de la lecture. Cette situation ne s'arrête pas aux portes de l'université et la démocratisation universitaire qu'il faut bien entendu poursuivre, multipliera les cas paradoxaux d'étudiants non lecteurs. La bibliothèque de lecture publique peut jouer comme un outil de rattrapage, une forme alternative d'accès à la culture, non soumise aux mêmes contraintes. Il faut lui laisser jouer librement ce rôle.

Certes il faut rendre plus attractives les bibliothèques universitaires, particulièrement en France, où la bibliothèque universitaire a tendance à être à la lecture, ce que le restaurant universitaire est à la gastronomie. Un programme très prometteur, avec des crédits significatifs, est en cours pour y parvenir. Il ne faut pas non plus que ce programme soit contaminé par les défauts de la lecture publique, dont le développement sans doute remarquable, est parfois superficiel, et aussi beaucoup plus irrégulier voire incohérent d'une bibliothèque à l'autre. Le meilleur moyen de combiner les deux avantages est de respecter les missions propres de chacun, avec des outils appropriés. c'est pourquoi, parmi les scénarios possibles, ma préférence irait à celui dans lequel les deux fonctions seraient assurées, non pas obligatoirement dans des espaces séparés, mais en tous cas par des collectivités distinctes.

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Storing the World's Information — A 21st Century Crisis

Marilyn J.Sharrow
University of California, Davis, California, USA

ABSTRACT

One of the most challenging issues administrators of research libraries face is the need to store and easily retrieve the materials being collected. This section of a larger paper examines the world's output of printed book titles and the ways research libraries store collections. Finally, several ways of pursuing the issue are listed to generate discussion and collection of information which will set standards for future use.

One of the most challenging issues administrators of research libraries face is the need to store and easily retrieve the materials being collected. The Bowker *Annual Library and Book Trade Almanac for 1990–91* (R.R.Bowker, 1990) shows the world book title output for 1984-86. The number of titles published in 38 countries in 1986 was 596,193. By comparing the figures from 1984 to 1986, one learns that the world output of book titles is increasing. For example, the United States published 51,555 titles in 1984 and 57,845 in 1986; the U.S.S.R. published 82,790 in 1984 and 83,472 in 1986. Research librarians continue to purchase print materials in great quantities from these vast numbers of titles printed, while we know that concomitant shelving space is not being built. The 1989-90 Association of Research Libraries statistics in the United States and Canada list the number of monograph volumes purchased by 78 research libraries for one year. For example, the University of Illinois, Urbana purchased 113,518 volumes, the University of California, Davis purchased 72,891 volumes, and the University of Alberta in Canada purchased 57,962 volumes. Assuming an average of 30 volumes shelved on a conventional 3 foot shelf, the total number of monograph volumes purchased by these three libraries in one year would be 244,371 and would require 8,145 shelves or 24,435 linear feet of shelving to house them. From this small example we can pose the basic question: will there be enough shelving capacity in the 21st. Century to store the thousands of volumes being purchased by research libraries? While we may be able to calculate the world's output of monograph titles, as well as the output of serials which require even more space, it is more difficult to predict how much space will be available to store the collections.

Various remedies are being undertaken to keep the growth of collections under control. Many universities utilize compact or high-density shelving. This is a limited solution because of the need for greater floor-loading to hold the heavy shelving units. The units are double or triple the cost of traditional shelving and the units must close tightly making them inoperable for varied sizes of collections such as folio and large-sized materials. Also, users cannot access the collections as easily as they can with standard shelving.

Another solution used by many research libraries is the remote storage concept. In the United States, for example, many research libraries use storage facilities for seldom used materials which they do not wish to discard. The University of Michigan has operated a large auxiliary shelving unit for over 25 years; Harvard University rents space from a cooperative storage operation within the geographical region; and the University of California has built two major storage facilities to be used by the nine campuses to house almost 9 million volumes. The issues with remote storage facilities are the initial cost of construction, which may be less than a full-service library, but still considerable; acquisition of land; the cost of ongoing staffing for shelving and retrieval of the collections including document delivery by transport and/or electronics; and the inaccessibility to the collections by the users who wish to browse the materials.

A third option, which is usually incorporated in libraries regardless of the use of other solutions, is an aggressive weeding policy. Designed to keep the collections from becoming choked with outdated and disintegrated materials, the problem is that librarians cannot weed out enough material to make a significant dent in the storage shortage.

Preservation of materials often gains some shelf space by the conversion of worn materials to microprint, although the amount is not sufficient to restore significant storage space.

Finally, the national storage centers such as the Center for Research Libraries in the United States, and the British Lending Division in the United Kingdom have been enormously helpful to the space question. Costs of operation, governance, and accessibility are issues which must be addressed

when discussing cooperative centers.

Many research libraries are incorporating one, several, or all of these solutions to their growing storage concerns. Information in electronic formats, automation, and rising costs due to high inflation rates compete with the funds required to build additional space. With the question posed, the next step is to review the present solutions and to plan for the future by incorporating current methods with possible new solutions. One important first step might be the evaluation of the world's research library storage capacity and the projection of needs for the next 25 years. A second step might be to determine the value of regional collection centers where materials are stored which have subject and use similarities to share the burden of storage among compatible institutions. Finally, discussions could be held among various planning groups, architects, university administrators and librarians to broaden the sphere of influence and level of understanding about this issue of storing the world's information in the 21st. Century.

Tomorrow is another Today for University Library Services

G.G. Allen
Curtin University of Technology, Perth, Western Australia

Abstract

The paper considers whether it is likely that the future of university library services will be the role of intermediary between database publishers and the reader. It is concluded that while this role may develop in countries that can afford the technology, the traditional role of libraries as the major support for student learning will remain.

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The future of university libraries as providers of information will depend, as in the past, on a number of factors. While there are undoubtedly influences at work that will modify, if not threaten, the role of the university library, there are also many stabilising factors that will probably restrict the extent, and prolong the time frame, of change.

The concept of information as a commodity that exists in its own right, independently of books or other printed documents, is hardly new. Before the nineteenth century men of science and letters communicated with each other through their personal correspondence, or by visiting. Earlier still information passed, literally, from mouth to mouth; the oral tradition. Neither of these communication processes ever disappeared, and perhaps all that is happening today is that the techniques of electronics are enabling a resurgence of person to person communication, but with the added potential that what is communicated can be broadcast to a wider audience, and preserved in a non-print medium. Too much should not therefore be made of these developments as potential detractors from the traditional role of libraries.

The concept of information as the essence of a library's stock in trade, and therefore that in should be the focus of the librarian's thinking, is misleading. Information is intangible as it is imprecise. It is not necessarily fact, nor idea, nor even correct. It cannot be quantified, or controlled or disseminated until it acquires form and format. And only when that form has been established can libraries become involved in the handling of information.

The developments of recent years that seen to point to a different future for academic libraries are not the jargon and semantics of the "information professionals" but the reality of the novel forms by which knowledge and ideas can be recorded, stored and transmitted. Perhaps the most significant innovation is the process by which the power of the publisher, bookseller and librarian to disseminate published material is being in part replaced by the power of the consumer, the reader, to initiate the distribution process as and when a need is felt. This is the essential and unique characteristic of electronic networks linked to remote databases, and there can be no doubts that these systems will be greatly expanded internationally and locally in the next few years.

However, the substance of these database networks is collections of literary expression, not information in the abstract. The question for libraries is therefore will they remain as important as they presently are, as purveyors of literary expressions? In respect of electronic distribution networks libraries are clearly not necessary technically. Anyone can call up a database frome home or office, given the right equipment and some knowledge of retrieval software. And it may be expected that this process will become much easier, and cheaper, in the future. But few people need, or want, to have this access to literature with sufficient frequency to justify not only the cost,but the effort of acquiring the facility. To have a library, and perhaps a librarian, act as intermediary in accessing published material, is a convenience that is likely to remain the preference of the majority.

But the function of a university library is not solely, or perhaps most importantly, to provide access to the relatively esoteric literature required by a research community. Libraries provide one of the main supports to students at all levels, and it is unlikely that in the foreseeable future their needs will be served other then from siqnificant collections of conventional books and journals. There are a number of arguments that can support this predication, among which is the observation that the process of learning and understanding does not occur at the speed of light, but requires time for the student to reflect upon or struggle with facts and ideas, and to compare two or more views of a

situation.

Predicting the future of university libraries in general must require some consideration of the existing state and character of these libraries in different parts of the world. This is not just a matter of considering the difference between libraries in the developed and developing nations, but also between those in nations of similar economic circumstances, or even within a single country. It must be recognised that the role of the university library in those countries that broadly follow the Anglo-American tradition is very different from that of those in many European countries, while in some developing countries the resource situation of academic libraries is in fact deteriorating. While the costs of entry to electronic servicis are declining, they are still reasonably high and, more significantly, there are continuing costs for equipment service or replacement, and access to data resources which many libraries in less affluent countries cannot afford. It would be a remarkable optimist who would predict early change to this situation.

As there is little doubt but that the publishing industry will increasingly adopt electronic means to distribute some of its more specialised products, there must be some concern for those countries of the world that cannot afford the means to use the products. Economics, politics and geography will have more impact on the role that university libraries play that will technology. The support of research, whether it be with inhouse resources, by interlibrary borrowing, of as a channel for electronically delivered text, requires financinal resources. Whether or not many libraries will be able to perform this function is an open question, and more compelling that how libraries may operate tomorrow.

Researchers' Need for Audiovisual Media as Material

Piet Van Wijk
Director of the Film and Science Foundation, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

ABSTRACT

With the growing need for audiovisual sources in the study of the Arts and the Humanities, the access to the material itself and to its contents is shown to be highly inadequate, in many countries. In The Netherlands this problem is met by an Audiovisual research Centre, but a National Audiovisual Archive is necessary.

The paper discusses some of the characteristics which make av-material difficult to deal with, ways in which researchers can use av material, the historical context, and analysis methods. The paper ends with some practical points to bear in mind.

In this I should like to discuss some general principles and some of the particular problems relating to the use of audiovisual media as source material.

I am not a librarian. I am the Head of an Archive and Research Centre. Therefore my paper is based on my experience with Dutch audiovisual archives. To what extent this corresponds with the situation in other countries, I do not know. You will have to decide that for yourself, after I have told you the history and the present function of my institution.

The Film and Science Foundation dates from the late fifties. It was started as a Centre for Audiovisual Production Services. With studios, programme makers, subject specialists, many technical facilities and a large media library the institute formed a modern facilities centre for the Dutch universities. It was financed by the Ministry of Education and Science.

In the sixties, the depositing of a large collection of historical sound recordings of the Dutch Broadcast Company led to the creation of an Archive and a Documentation Department. Through donations, depositing and our own registrations this audiovisual has grown into a rich collection of image and sound. Early in the eighties the Minister of Education decided that the subsidy for the institution should gradually be stopped. As most universities had created their own audiovisual facilities centres, a relatively expensive central service institution was deemed unnecessary. It was decide that the institution should be continued without subsidy as an independent institution on a commercial footing. The studios, the film production department and the media library were privatised. There was only one exception. The Minister recognized the impossibility of exploiting the archive and documentation department commercially. After a reorganisation plan the archives were given financial possibilities to continue functioning.

What happenned next is essential for an understanding of the Dutch situation. The archival task continued to be directed towards the collecting of audiovisual material with a socio-cultural or political importance. But to this was added a second task: 'to stimulate the use of historical audiovisual material in research and higher education'.

Thus the basis was created for an audiovisual research centre.

Why does the Dutch governement think it relevant to finance an audiovisual research centre? The institution derives its right of existence from the observed need for such a research centre in the Dutch world of science. To understand this, it is important to realise that there is no National Film Archive or Media Archive in The Netherlands. Our country only has a Cinematheque (The Dutch Film Museum) which concentrates on the artistic film. The largest collections of audiovisual material can be found in the archives of the Dutch Broadcast Company, but these are only open to broadcast staff. Researchers and other interested individuals are not given access because these collections are considered to be closed company archives.

The absence of central audiovisual archives, open to the public, have resulted in many small collection all over the country. Museums, libraries, town archives and many other institutions, some 200 all together, have started to collect historical registrations of image and sound. They each manage a smaller or larger collection of av media. Because they cannot know what is kept in the broadcast archives, they have also started to make off-air recordings of radio and television programmes for their own collection. Modern technology makes this relatively easy.

Thus the absence of central archives and the inaccessibility of the Broadcast Archives has created a chaotic situation. Fortunately a Guide to the 256 smaller Dutch audiovisual collections gives a convenient survey of the present situation.

However, with the growing need for audiovisual sources in the study of history, art, political science, communication science and other disciplines in the Arts and Humanities, the access to the material itself and to its contents is shown to be highly inadequate. These are the reasons why the Minster of Education and Science is willing to finance a research centre. A place where researchers can find information, advice and support when looking for audiovisual sources, cataloguing data, viewing facilities or documentation. Users of audiovisual material are doubly handicapped: the material is hard to get at and expensive to use and the methodology for research is still young and not well developed. This also justifies a research centre. Fortunately there are by now plans for a National Audiovisual Archive Institution. The main advantages of this will be:

— one central place where originals are kept;

— central cataloguing and decentralised possibilites for on-line consultation of the data;

— structured distribution facilities;

and finally, after all those years, the possibility to make a clear distinction between two separate tasks: long-term conservation in the Archive and availability for users in viewing centres created for this purpose. These latter can develop specialized collections according to local or thematic needs.

How come? Why is there no national av archive, why is there no organised structure of viewing centres? The answer is partly typically Dutch and of no interest to you. But partly also the answer lies in the specific nature of the media. Audiovisual sources have some universal characteristics, which are the same whichever the country and therefore relevant to discuss here.

a. First of all the production of the documents. Typical for «media» (printed or audiovisual) is ofcourse that an idea or concept can be made known to a large number of people: through the «media». Yet an essential distinction is, that in principal every user can obtain his own copy of printed media (books, newspapers, periodicals). This is also the case for some audiovisual media such as grammophone records, cd's, and more recently vidoetapes. But often audiovisual media are circulated through one copy only. In the cinema, on radio and tv, through closed circuits etc. one copy of a product is made visible or audible to a large number of people. Actual multiplication of the original would be very expensive. This is one of the reasons why legal deposit such as exists in many countries for printed material is not so easy to realise for such audiovisual media. The expence of duplication also prohibites the creation of separate collections for archival, consulation, loan and reserve purposes.

Not only the material costs, but also the copyright and licencing costs can hinder structured acquisition. The development of an av-media collection specializing in moving image (film) and sound (spoken word) can be made rather difficult by such legal and financial barriers.

Commercially produced and distributed audiovisual media are different. Once freely available on the market, grammophone records, CD's and videotapes can of course be collected. However, these are not the documents that most researchers are after.

b. The second universal problem lies in the different formats and systems. If a videotape has survived 10 years — much longer we cannot expect it to last — the system is abandoned for another. The succession of systems : VCR, Betamax, VHS, Super VHS, Video 8, does not give much hope for the future. To choose a system in which to develop a long term, easily accessible research collection of audiovisual media, is therefore very difficult.

In our institution we keep the important documents on U-matic tape. A semi-professional system which has proved fairly reliable over the last 15 years. Yet we know for sure that this system too will not be around for ever.

The digitizing of information in the future might be a solution to the extent that it will at least prevent the loss of quality when making copies.

c. The third problem for the development of a proper audiovisual sources structure in The Netherlands is the cataloguing. The many collections spread all over the country each have their own reason for existence. Audiovisual documents in museums require a different bibliograhic description from the film fragments used by the broadcast company. Similar differences exist between an antropology institute and the town archives. The absence of any kind of unity and the time consuming character of bibliographic description and cataloguing mean that there is no insight at all in what is nationally available. Yet that is what every researcher most wants: a central catalogue that provides access to all the relevant material.

It may seem that I am just giving arguments in order to keep any well thinking person from developing an audiovisual collection for research purposes. That is not what I want. On the contrary. Anybody involved in contemporary historical research or study in any of the disciplines in the Arts of Humanities will have to admit that such research is impossible nowadays without including the audiovisual media.

The development of the video and the television techniques has changed our world within some ten score years from a world based on oral and written traditions into a world with an image culture. One of the important consequences of the development of the audiovisual media into mass media is, that political, sociological and cultural developments can on the one hand quickly be made visible

and known all over the world through these media, while the same media have on the other hand an important influence on the spread, the rise and the decline of these same developments.

Such international principles will be recognizable at national and regional level. We can also see variations in the importance of media, through time. Who can analyse the Vietnam War or, even further back, the Cold War, whithout analysing film, radio and television sources? In this context I should like to mention the conference of the Internation Association for Audiovisual Media in Historical Research and Education LAMHIST which was held last month in Göttingen, Germany. The subject was: Cold War in retrospect; Film and Television sources.

The importance of easily accessible audiovisual sources is undeniable. The question is not whether these should be collected, described and made avilable for research but how.

The requirements will be different for the various branches of science. The sciences such as medicine, biology, physics etc. will show a different pattern of use from e.g. antropology. I should like to look more closely now at the approach used by historians. John O'Conner gave a lucid survey in his recent book «Image as Artifact». O'Connor distinguishes four functions for film and television images as research material for historians:

1. an imaginative representation of the past; Many historical documentaries, docu-drama's and historical plays show the varying image of the past.
2. Film and television as source material for socio-historical and cultural historical research. The over-simplification which takes av media as a straightforward reflection of society may be a pitfall in this.
3. Documentary images as a prove for historical incidents. Film and video images may have a value as factual documents, provided film assembling and tricking techniques are taken into account.
4. Film and television image as products of an industry and as a form of art. In this context the achievements of the film history are evident.

O'Connor stresses that this survey does not describe 4 types of film, but 4 types of historical investigation. Also these types are not mutually excluding, on the contrary:'no one of them can or should be applied without reference to the others'.

Methodological reflections as given by O'Connor give some insight into the type of use that the researcher, in this case the historian may want to make of the media. I think that they can therefore play a part when we try to determine acquisition and selection criteria.

In this context, the idea that an av document never exists by itself, is very important. Every historian who looks at a film or television product and tries to analyse it ideologically, will have to take the context into account, how it was produced, how it was received. Various people are trying to describe an ideal model for the analysis of film and television products. Chris Vos in his analysis model distinguises between 5 groups of questions to be asked. This model explicitly places the audiovisual product along side the other sources. Using Fledelius as a basis to build on, he distinguishes:

1. The general historical context
   - — what was the mental and cultural climate of the time?
   - — which were the predominant production processes
   - — which was the role played by mass media?
2. The film historical context
   - — who were the makers, who commissioned the product?
   - — how was film production organised, how did the branch function?
   - — which trends, styles or aesthetical ideas were in vogue?
   - — is direct or indirect political influence on the product imaginable or recognizable?
3. Production
   - — how was the idea developed?
   - — if based on a literary medium, by whom and what was the part played by this source?
   - — scenario: which versions existed, which changes were made: how did the final selection come about?
   - — script, assembling
     what versions existed; who revised them?
4. Product analysis
   - — the narration
     how is the story contructed? what narration techniques and convincing techniques are used? what history, what social problems and social stereotypes can be recognized?
   - — the «text» or image grammar
     which codes or conventions are used in the camera handling, in assembling, in scenes and

sequences and in the use of sound?

5. The effect
   - — what was its influence on public opinion?
   - — its history of showing, censured?
   - — what did the public think of the film, at the first showing, and afterwards?

This is a much abbreviated survey of the questions that can be asked in the analysis of a image document. Thus presented to you, it is a rather theoretical exercise, but I am using it to show that the consultation of an audiovisual document by a historian is usually not an isolated activity. A statement which is of importance for the identification of the requirements of our users.

Also the survey shows that models for analysis are used which can be applied to all image material. From the earliest films to recent televion material. This fits with our experience that reseaarchers cannot disregard the classic material, even when dealing with modern sources. For camera and assembling techniques, the use of sound and the semiotics of modern televion drama, news, commercials etc, all have their roots in the classic film history. Thus I can ascertain that every thesis or research report which I see mentions in its introduction names such as Sergei Eisenstein, David Griffith, Robert Flaherty, Fritz Lang, Leni Riefenstahl, Alfred Hitchcock, Orson WOelles, Vittorio de Sica, Jean Luc Godard or Frederik Wiseman. Shelves full of classics are therefore essential particularly in a scholarly video collection.

I looked at one approach taken from ome branch of study. There are of course many possible approaches and many questions that are asked or may be asked. We cannot discuss them all.

Therefore I should like to end by mentioning some practical points, resulting from our experience within our own research institute. The order is arbitrary:

— researchers need a lot of time
A researcher who comes just to quickly look into a few documents to check some data, is an exception. If a researcher finds what he is looking for, he usually needs hours, or even days to analyse, describe and assimilate the documents.

— researchers do not have any money.
This is of relevance to the way in which material is made available. Audiovisual media are expensive. Viewing a film on a film assembling unit ofter requires assistence. If the real costs of such services must be paid, the services will become too expensive for the researcher. We should take this into account when deciding on the form and facilities for access. Copies for consultation on videotape or audiotape can help.

— researchers often do not know yet what they really want.
As I said before, the methodology for working with audiovisual material is still underdeveloped. The person responsible for the collection has a choice: to leave the researchers to muddle on, or to help. In our institution we have developed an interactive laserdisc which serves as an introduction for new users. This gives the user the ABC of audiovisual analysis within 2 hours. A guide to relevant contextual information is also much appreciated.

— researchers have no idea of the characteristics of the medium.
They show little understanding for the legal, financial, organisational and material problems which make access to audiovisual material difficult. It is advisable to inform the start of the possibilities and impossibilities, through a leaflet. This should ofcourse also make clear what it will all cost. This may help to preclude major disappointments.

All this may seem a bit negative to you, but it is not. Far more things go well than go wrong. And there certainly is no collection as interesting and fascinating as an audiovisual collection. However, the enthusiasm of the audiovisual librarian may be a danger in itself, which leads me to my last piece of advice: do not take the chair of the researcher. I say this in particular with the time consuming character of describing and cataloguing in mind. Describing one hour of audiovisual material may take you 8 to 10 hours. A brief description of the contents with some relevant keywords is what the researcher needs.

Extreme, but characteristic is a quote from photographer-journalist Ed Strokes which I found in his book 'Finding and Keeping; Research Use of Audiovisual Material'. He says: 'I never found cataloguing or the lack of cataloguing of photographs a problem at all, for the rather odd reason that I basically thought I had to look at every individual photograph. If there was a photograph of (...), I wanted to look at it and really felt no catalogue information could give the content of the photograph.

Mediating News and Public Opinion to Members of Parliament

Brit Floistad
Parliamentary Librarian of Norway

ABSTRACT

The point of departure in this paper is the need for Members of Parliament to keep abreast of news and public opinion, while the purpose of the paper is to look into the various means through which this can be achieved. In doing so a horizontal as well as a vertical dimension is introduced. The former implies a continuum with informal *direct contact* from persons and interest groups at one end, through the traditional means like *newspapers* and *broadcasting* in the middle to mediating through *news indexing*; printed as well as databases, at the opposite end. As for the vertical dimension this is to indicate that news and public opinion can originate on various levels; that is locally, nationally and internationally.

When dealing with the various means, a certain distinction is made between news and public opinion and not least between todays' and "yesterday's news". The latter refers to the fact that even though the main purpose of news media is to mediate the latest events, they also have a role to play when the news is no longer new. The reason being that the ensuing commentaries, statements or interviews still will be of interest to the parliamentarian. As the dailly news is fairly easy to come by for an MP, it seems fair to assume that it is precisely in storing and making available "yesterday's news" that a parliamentary library faces its main challenge. This is true primarely when it comes to local and national news and debates. As for international events the library is also faced with the challenge of supplying the latest news as well; mainly through various forms of news indexing.

The paper also touches on the importance of differentiating between what the parliamentarian is likely to do themselves and what is expected of the library. Considering the limited amount of time left for parliamentarians to spend on information searching and not least the complexity of the new and more technical means, it seems fair to assume that very few Members wiil do their own searching in databases, but rather need the help of a professional information worker. In performing this task, the challenge may be, not only to answer requests put to the library, but rather to provide information on current affairs and public debate even before being asked.

The necessity for Members of Parliament to keep adreast of news and public opinion is obvious. It can be achieved by various means and the purpose of this paper is to examine some of them, drawing on experience gained at the Norwegian national assemlbley, the Storting.

In so doing, the point of departure will be a horizontal as well as a vertical dimension. The former implies more precisely that the means through which news and public opinion are mediated may be indicated along a continuum with informal *direct contact* from persons and interest groups at one end, through the traditional means like *newspapers* and *broadcasting* in the middle to mediating through *news indexing*; often in databases, at the opposite end. As for the vertical dimension this is to indicate that news and public opinion can originate on various levels; that is locally, nationally and internationally.

The continuum may in turn be related to the levels on which news and public opinion originate, as well as to a certain distinction between news and public opinion. *Direct contact* from persons or interest groups will in most cases have the local level as its point of departure and usually relate to public opinion rather than news. The regular media, *newspapers* and *broadcasting*, may originate on the local as well as on the national and international level. Even though their prime concern is the dailly news and news commentaries, they also reflect public opinion and issues on the political agenda. National newspapers will naturally give preference to national events, which means that in order

to keep more broadly informed about international affairs, there is a need to consult various forms of *news indexing*; printed as well as databases.

After this brief overview I will now look at the various means more closely. In so doing it seems natural, as indicated above, to make a certain distinction between news and public opinion, even though they are related and equally important to the parliamentarian. Likewise, a distinction between today'a news and what I will call "yesterday's news" may seem relevant as well.

Direct contact from persons and interest groups

The Norwegian Parliament has long traditions enabling people to convey their opinions and concern directly to members of parliament. Likewise there is a tradition for interest groups and organizations to hand over petitions and to meet with standing committees to express their views. Even though this is not usually included in the group of media, it is worth mentioning because such direct contact with persons and interest groups is an important means for the members to keep informed; primarily of course on public opinion and debate. Most issues dealt with by the parliamentarian relate precisely to the day-to-day problems of the ordinary people.

Newspapers

Reading of newspapers; local, national and to a certain extent foreign, constitutes an important part of an MP's day. Being at all times informed on the latest events, both in his own constituency, as well as at stste level, and on the international scene, is obviously expected of Members of Parliament.

With a publication of more than 150 newspapers and a population of 4 million people, Norway can justifiably claim to be a big producer of newspapers. The papers will of course vary in size and frequency; while some bring primarily local news, others will be more national and international in character. And while half are dailies, that rest will come out 2 to 5 times a week.

This flow of newspapers is naturally reflected in the Library of the Norwegian Parliament, more precisely in the collection of 139 Norwegian newspapers received and made available in the reading room. In order also to meet the need among parliamentarians to keep informed on foreign affairs, 36 newspapers from other countries are made available in the reading room as well.

In other words, the parliamentarian will, in the library reading room, be able to read the local news from his own constituency, the national newspapers as well as the larger foreign ones; that means news on all the three levels. He may not take the papers out of the reading room, but by use of a photo copy machine close by, he may take all the copies he needs.

Turning now to the actual handling of newspapers in the library, I will say a few words about the distinction made initially between today's news and "yesterday's news". Let me start by saying that the library is of course not the only place in the Parliament where Members can get a hold of newspapers. Not only do they receive a fair number directly in their mail, but there is also a special reading room centrally located in the Parliament building with newspapers, magazines and so on. Even though newspapers can be found elsewhere in the House, the library has the largest and most systematic collection, and not least, is the only place where newspapers are kept and stored and thus where one is able to answer requests for "yesterday's news". And such requests are frequently made to the library; the reason being that even though the news as such is well known at that point, the ensuing commentaries, statements or interviews will still be of interest.

In other words, even though the main purpose of news media is to mediate the latest events, they also have a role to play when the news is no longer new, precisely because a parliamentarian may need to clarify comments or statements made in relation to the news by a political adversary or a party fellow. Thus not only to make available today's newspapers but also to put some effort into the keeping of this material, is an important task for a parliamentary library.

Of the 139 Norwegian newspapers received in the Library of the Norwegian Parliament, the principal ones (around 30) are permanently stored; from the 1970s on microfilm. The period for which others are kept varies from 2-3 months to a couple of years. The 36 foreign newspapers are all kept for at least a year. This means that a certain effort goes into making "yesterday's news" available to the user, but the experience is that it is well worth while. Microfilming reduces the space problem so that this material, rather than being kept in remote storage rooms, can be more readily accessible.

As no indexing is done in the library of newspaper articles, finding the right issue require that the customer is fairly presice in indicating the data the news was published. As most newspapers do their own indexing, however, the library will make use of this when necessary. As such indexing is increasingly done in databases, the future retrieval of material from newspapers will become much easier. A couple of papers offers this service today and I will come back to this later when looking av news mediated through databases.

Broadcasting

Through regular programmes on current events including commentaries and interviews, as well as debate and discussion programmes, radio and television are important mediators of news as well as of public opinion.

In the Norwegian Parliament all representatives have access in their office to the two national radio stations and to a television set where they can watch all channels available in the Oslo area.

Radio and television is also installed in the library, more precisely in what is defined as the library's "mediatek". I will spend some time presenting this "mediatek" and the kind of service it offers to the representatives of the Norwegian Parliament. I belive this may be rather unigue in the library world.

In addition to being a room where the Members of Parliament may listen to daily programmes on radio or television, the main purpose of the "mediatek" is the recording of programmes from these media on tapes and video and the keeping of these recordings in the "mediatek" for 2 months. This means that what was said earlier about the need to make available "yesterday's news" from newspapers, goes for radio and television as well. Thus, by this recording the library is able to respond to a need to listen to or view yesterday's news programmes as well as debate and discussion programmes indicating public opinion on various issues.

The service of supplying parliamentarians with recordings of programs from radio and television on a regular basis goes back to 1972. It was in response to parliamentarians' wish to be able to hear, and possibly get a transcript of, programs; newsreporting and commentaries, but also of debates and discussions on radio and television that they either had not been able to hear directly when transmitted or had been made aware of afterwards. To offer this service seemed an appropriate task for the library, and the equipment for recording as well as the way in which the service has been executed has gradually become more sophisticated and expedient; benefitting from technological advances and improved methods.

While the tapes initially were obtained from outside the library, equipment has now been acquired in order for the library to make the recording directely. This means that rather than have to wait until the next day or the day after, a copy of the tape or the video can now be provided immediately after a programme has been broadcast.

Recordings are made from the two national radio stations of certain programmes specified in advance; that is all news programmes, reportings, discussion programmes and so on. Recordings from the national television channel will cover most of the programmes sent.

When applying for a certain programme on radion or television, the MP may either listen to or watch the programme in the "mediatek" or he may obtain a copy; that is a cassette or a video sent to his office. A transcript of the programme may be obtained as well, but as this is a very timeconsuming service and not least as requests to the "mediatek" are on the increase, the library will do this only in special circumstances. The library now more often provides a cassetta or a video, while the transcript is made by the party secretariat, supplying the parliamentarian with a written version.

For the library to be able to offer this service, a special agreement has been reached with the Norwegian Broadcasting Company. This agreement involves no financial compensation on the part of the Storting. The conditions are that this is a service to Members of Parliament only and exclusively for use in the House. Initially this meant the "mediatek", but as equipment for transmission from cassette and video has begun to be installed in party secretariats and members' offices, copies may, as indicated above, be used elsewhere in the House.

Let me also mention that when a transcript is made in the library from radio or television programs, they are kept in the library. In a short perspective they are useful because more than one request is likely to be made for the same programme, but also because some of the major debates and interviews also constitute important sources in reference work.

The service outlined above is highly appreciated by the MPs and requests are steadily increasing. This is especially true when certain issues are the subject of hot debate between the political parties or otherwise reflected in public discussion. Likewise an increase can be seen prior to an election. This reflects of course, what was indicated initially, namely that parlamentarians need to keep informed on issues high on the political agenda.

Their need to use the "mediatek" in order to achieve this is linked to their special kind of occupation. Being a Member of Parliament means frequent meetings and much travelling, which in turn means they are not always able to listen to or watch programmes on radio or television beneficial or essential to their work. One other point is the increasing number of radio stations and television channals. As one can only "absorb" one programme at a time, there is likely to be a number of programmes that one did not get the chance to hear or see. In both cases the "mediatek" will make it possible to catch up with missed programmes.

Another usage of the "mediatek" is for instance for all the members of a Standing committee to watch a particualar programme — most often a debate of discussion programme — dealing with the field of interest of the committee concerned. A last usage worth mentioning is of course a Member wishing to hear or see himself after having taken part in a discussion program or been interviewed on a certain issue.

Let me also mention that the library offers the possibility to request in advance a copy of a programme not otherwise available because it is not on the regular list of recordings.

News indexing

Leaving the traditional and most commonly used media, I now turn to news indexing; printed as well as electronic databases; in other words, to means handled more often by professional information workers rather than the parliamentarian himself.

While the means dealt with so far mediate news and opinions originating primarily on the local and national level, various forms of indexing help to provide news and events on the international level as well.

There is in the Norwegian Parliament today a possibility to search in varios databases indexing news and current events. None are, however, made available to the representatives directly; being obliged in most cases to contact the library which is the place in the Parliament that has been given the right to search in databases.

When giving some examples of such databases, I will start by linking such indexing to newspapers. As indicated above, there are in Norway today two daylies and one weekly indexed in a database. This database is of great help and often used in tracing "yesterday's news". It is a full text database which means that a printout can readily be provided. As the newspapers are stored in the library, the original newspaper may be handed over as well.

Another database that has been available in the Norwegian Parliament for about a year, is the indexing provided by the Norwegian News Bureau of the latest events; national as well as international. The secretariats of the various party groups in the House have been given access to this database, which means that the parliamentarians may contact either the library or their party secretariat. This secretariat will often, on a regular basis, supply the MPs with prints on various subjects each one is working on. Likewise he may supply prints on the latest international events, helping the members to prepare for comments that they are often asked to make on such events.

The indexing mentioned so far will, as they are produced nationally, give priority to news and events of particular interest to Norway. To be able to give more extensive information on international events, the library also make use of foreign indexes; printed as well as databases.

Let me here mention Profile through which the library has access to news, articles, commentaries and so on from about 40 international newspapers and journals. This is, however, rather expensive in use and we will thus try to utilize printed indexes first.

Examples here are the well known Keesing's Records of World Events, presenting itself as a factual, objective reference source on current affairs. As it is now published monthly, it is, however, not useful for most recent events. Otherwise it is a very valuable source of information on events worldwide.

Not to be omitted is the indexing done by the United States Information Agency. Here articles and transcripts on international news, events, press conferences and interviews are provided on a daily basis. These are received in the library and put on display for everyone to see; they are not registered and not kept for more than a few months.

Worth mentioning finally is that in order to keep informed within one particular field, more specialized indexes can be found. One field av particular interest to Norway at the moment is our relations with the European Community (NORIM '92); more precisely the process towards a cooperation between the EC and EFTA countries. A special database with information on the activity of the European Community as well as on the progress of this process has been established. It is very useful in order for the library to provide the parliamentarians with the latest news in this field. The library provides, on a regular basis, printouts of particular parts of this database to the various standing committees.

Conclusion

To sum up then; there are no doubt many means through which the parliamentarian may be informed on news and public opinion. As for current events and debates, newspapers, radio and television remain the best means for the latest local and national and to some extent international news. For the latter, however, one depends on various forms of indexing as well.

As for his need for "yesterday's news" as it is defined here namely the statements, commentaries and interviews made in relation to the news, and not least for public opinion, debates and discussions he will have to rely on various forms of storage, recording and indexing offered by the library. As the daily work of parliamentarian as well as the many programmes being sent simultaniously, prevents him from listening to or viewing all the programs he might find useful and interesting, this service is no doubt very valuable — perhaps increasingly so.

Before ending this overview I would like to add a few words on the role of, or more precisely the challenge facing, the libraries on this matter. Considering the limited amount of time left for parliamentarians to spend on information searching together with the variety and not least the complexity of the new and more technical means, it seems fair to assume that very few Members, even if given

access to databases, will do thier own searching. It is therefore important to differentiate between what the parliamentarians are likely to do themselves and what is expected of the library. While for the daily news and events — especially on the local and national level — the MP easily will keep informed through traditional means like newspapers, radio and television, he will, for international currents events as well as "yesterday's news", most likely need the help of the professional information worker.

In performing this task, the challenge may be, not only to answer requests put to the library, but rather to provide information on current affairs and public debate and discussion on a regular basis directly to the representatives. This reguires a fairly good knowledge of the fields of interest of various members as well as of issues on the political agenda. It thus implies a challenge to the librarian, but as it at the same time implies a closer contact with the daily life of the parliament it will in turn give a more meaningful job.

Building a Parliamentary Research Capability

William H. Robinson
Deputy Director and Senior Specialist in Public Policy Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress, Washington, DC, U.S.A.

Abstract

This paper starts with some theoretical linkages connecting information, legislatures, and democracy. It considers a number of fundamental design issues like how independent of the executive the legislature wishes to position itself, which clients to serve, functional operating values to adopt, the advantages of a parliamentary oversight committee, and other basic design concerns. The next section explores more detailed choices in terms of size and make-up of staff, as well as internal organization. The following two sections address operating styles including institutional culture and values, and ways of relating to the outside world of clients and other information providers that will assist the legislative research unit in meeting its objectives in the context of inevitable resource constraints. The paper concludes with a case study tracing the modes of operation of the Congressional Research Service of the Library of Congress, in an attempt to illustrate some of the key concepts.

This paper is a summary of a much lengthier version. The longer paper is available from the author on request.

BUILDING A PARLIAMENTARY RESEARCH CAPABILITY

The decade of the Nineties began with great hope, as the world watched a rising tide of democratic impulses wash over many large areas of the world. This movement toward democracy was most dramatic, of course, in Central and Eastern Europe. What began as *perestroika* and *glasnost* soon progressed to *demokratizatsia* in the Soviet Union, and spread rapidly across much of Eastern Europe — bringing more profound change in two months (December 1989 and January 1990) than in the two preceding generations. At thet same time, far away in Latin America, democratic forces won control in Chile, Paraguay, Panama, and Nicaragua.

There exciting changes have created the cornerstones of democracy, but much of the hard task of building democratic societies and their essential supporting institutional structures stil lies ahead. This paper addresses one small element of that construction process, that of building a research capability for parliaments.

A PHILOSOPHICAL PREMISE: THE LINKAGES BETWEEN INFORMATION AND DEMOCRACY

The key to democracy is representative and effective legislature. It is difficult to conceive of a truly democratic government that lacks an electoral link between the people and their delegates chosen to represent them in the policymaking process of the nation. This notion involving "consent of the governed" can be traced back to medieval times, when the king summoned other powerful sources of authority in the realm for consultation based on the Roman legal principle that "what touches all should be approved by all."[1] In this vein, Barbara Sinclair has identified democratic lawmaking as the most important function of the legislature, and defines that activity as the act of making "laws that are responsive to the views and needs of a majority and to do so in way that allows the full range of significant views to be heard."[2]

In turn, an effective legislature in today's complex world is dependent on information and analysis that permit it to make informed decisions. While its electoral linkage helps legitimize the actions of the legislature in a formal sense, the efficacy of its actual lawmaking performance is what induces citizen support and lends binding authority to its actions. Thus, we arrive rather quickly at the importance of creating an effective research and analytical capacity for the legislature.

A Progression of Legislative Models: Nascent, Functioning, Informed, and Independent[3]

It may be useful at this point to identify a continuum of possible models for legislative information and action. We will look at the different needs of legislatures under various systems of government and/or at variable stages of development in order to address the issue of information needs of legislature generically.

At the low end of the continuum is the *nascent legislature* which lacks the resources and/or legal authority to play an effective role in governance. The vestigial legislatures common to Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union before reform would be examples. Lacking any real authority, staff, or information, their role was confined to unanimously rubber-stamping decisions of the party.

Some progress will be shown by the *functional legislature.* This body has at least a minimal level of staff and equipment, sufficient organization and procedures to process legislative demands on a reasonably expeditious basis, and enough information to validate policies made elsewhere in government. If a central research staff exists, its function is to be a source of information for direct use by legislators — providing reading rooms, basic sources of information, perhaps preparing bibliographies and other guides to sources, and transmitting information from executive authorities and other sources.

The informed legislature has added personal staff to extend the effectiveness of individual legislators, procured computers and other telecommunications equipment to significantly enchance information processing for the legislature, and developed the legislative committee process as means of deepening the substantive and political analysis done in the legislature. Central research staff provide annotated bibliographies, create summaries of bills, provide ready-reference responses to inquiries of the Members, describe policies and proposals, and offer pro-con assessments. Some of the more advanced research units in this category may trace impacts of proposed policies, and offer generic alternative choices to the legislature.

The high end of the continuum in terms of information requirements is the *independent legislature.* At this level, specialized expertise has been added to Member offices, Party fractions, Committee cadres, and central analytic staff; databases and computer models are developed and used in the legislature; and central analytic staff are capable of producing long-range projections, interdisciplinary analyses, and completely developed options which make independent action by the legislature possible without assistance from the executive or ministries.

Choosing an Appropriate Model

Each society must choose how far it wishes to pursue independence of legislative action based on its own history and political culture. The emerging legislatures in Eastern Europe and Latin America may need to focus on the *functioning legislature* as a first approximation of their ultimate goal. At the present time, they nearly all suffer from inadequate office space for Members, a dearth of professional staff, little office equipment, inadequate telecommunications systems, and only a few analytical staff. More traditional parliamentary systems may be satisfied with the *informed legislature.* A presidential system, with its sharp separation of powers and ceaseless struggle to maintain a balance of power among the branches, is inclined to press this information independence further than a parliamentary model — all the way to the transforming capabilities of the *independent legislature.*[4]

However, even though the emerging legislatures in Central and Eastern Europe are parliamentary in design, they may choose to operate much more independently of the executive than their West European counterparts (without, of course bringing down the government), because of their own unique heritage and needs. Emerging from a relatively monolithic governmental system, with aspirations for creating many new institutional sources of pluralistic power, might be reason enough to stress greater independence for its legislature. However, given the fact that the *nomenklatura* of the formerly Communist regimes could continue to dominate the ranks of the ministries for many years, there is a more compelling reason for the legislatures to want to create their own independent sources of expertise to serve as watchdogs on the reliability of the bureaucracy. This might imply moving beyond their initial goal of a functioning legislature, through and slightly beyond the informed legislature, and stopping somewhere between the informed legislature and the independent legislature.

FUNDAMENTAL DESIGN CHOICES

Rather than offering prescriptions that are likely to be invalidated by the variety of circumstances and cultures, the most useful service to be rendered by the outside consultant is to offer information about many models that might be disassembled and adapted for use in a new culture by the host legislature.[5]

How Independent?

This choice will condition how large a research enterprise should be, the kinds of staff skills that will need to be acquired, and the kinds of products to be produced. The types of products and services the legislature will need depends on its aspirations:

— The *functioning legislature* may only need reference services and basic descriptive information;

— The *informed legislature* will make use of these products and services and go beyond to require some analysis of problems, impact analysis, and the development of generic alternatives.

— The *independent legislature* will reach beyond these services to require independent acquisition of information, very high level staff, and forecasting and modelling capabilities.

Whom to Serve?

It is axiomatic that for a central research agency, serving the parliament means making services available on an equitable basis for both opposition members as well as those of the governing party or coalition. In actual practice in most parliamentary systems, it often means that the major share of services is provided to backbenchers and the opposition — based on the presumption that higher ranking members of the governing party

However, there is a need even in parliamentary systems to engage in constructive dialogue within the power centers of the party because the legislature has a unique contribution to make to the public policymaking process — whether that system be presidential or parliamentary in design. It is the role of the executive branch or "government" in a parliamentary system to develop policy that is in the broad general interest. It is the role of the legislature to screen that public interest and test it against the particularistic interests of the constituent elements of the groups or areas represented.[6]

In the ensuing dialogue, accommodations will be made that (ideally) preserve the national interest, but arrive at some equity adjustments to potentially injured or disadvantaged parties. Thus, even committees of the parliament and members of the majority party will benefit from independent analysis and information which permits the parliament to engage in a constructive dialogue on the policies proposed by the ministries.

Centralized or Decentralized?

Given the level of resources currently envisioned, a central source seems to make sense. For example, the Czechoslovakian legislature is considering a central Parliamentary Institute that will start small (about 5 people) and build to an authorized strength of 20. The Polish Senate has a similar scale of 20 in mind. But the Sejm is in the process of creating a research and analysis unit with a staff approaching 100. The Hungarians plan to add 5 people to the staff of their Parliamentary Library to perform research tasks. At this level of resource availability, a centralzed solution seems preordained.

New Agency?

President Franklin D. Roosevelt was a genius at generating creativity and enthusiasm through the creaion of new agencies and harnessing the dynamism that attaches to new ventures. New ideas and new people can be smothered in an old organization with a strong (and possibly resistant) culture. On the other hand, if a strong and closely-related enterprise already exists, it may make more sense to house small new beginnings in those stronger administrative structures. The parliamentary library is one such existing institution throughout the region. In Hungary, the Parliamentary library is a hospitable home for a nascent research enterprise. The Library has a high-quality multilingual staff of 40 that is interdisciplinary (lawyers, economists, information technologists, as well as librarians). This was also the path followed by the Congressional Research Service.

Objectivity and Balance

A central research facility for the legislature must provide objective analysis that can be trusted and used by all parties. This is the path chosen by the Congressional Research Service, as well as by the British, Germans, Australians, Canadians, and Indians — among others.

One of the most often confused issues is that of whether or not to make recommendations. Some who ardently advocate objective analysis as the norm for a legislative research agency also mistakenly believe that making recommendations is appropriate. The joining of objective analysis with recommendations may be possible where the client is singular and the preferences of that client are unambiguously known. In this limited case, analysts can attempt to apply their interpretation of the values of

their client in evaluating alternatives to make recommendations. However, there is no single legislative preference function, nor is there a way to obtain one a priori. In this situation, the analyst has no criteria to follow in making the value judgments needed to make recommendations. It follows that a central research unit for the legislature should not make recommendations. The value choices inherent in making recommendations are the exclusive province of the elected legislator. The role of staff is to highlight value choices — not to make them.

Parliamentary Oversight Committee?

The purpose of the oversight committee is to provide both guidance on and political cover for some of the most important choices that a parliamentary research body must make:

— Who will be served?

— What priority will be placed on who gets served, what kinds of products are produced, and what will be the timing of responses? (In short; who gets served with what, and how quickly?)

— What will be the values and standards of the research service?

— And, perhaps most importantly, who is going to ensure that these values, standards, and guidelines are followed?

DETAILED DESIGN CHOICES: BUILDING A RESEARCH INSTITUTION

The next set of questions addresses the actual construction of the research institution — creating an organization and then staffing it with researchers appropriate to the task.

Quality over Quantity

The first principle of building a research capacity for the legislature is that quality is more important than quantity. The task of the legislature is to hire a few of the best people in order to change the nature of the dialogue that occurs between the executive and the legislature. This can only occur if the legislature appreciates the need to pay salaries that are competitive with those of the very best analysts available in

The Search for an Adequate Supply of Appropriate Skills

While it will only take a few high quality staff to change the nature of the dialogue, it will take a good deal more to get the large volume of day-to-day work done. Starting with only a few people (5-20 in most Central European settings), deciding which skills to acquire first is an important decision. Generically, the core skills needed to provide information and analysis for the legislature will be those of librarians, lawyers, economists, and other social scientists (historians, political scientists, sociologists — with the latter two skills in short supply in most formerly closed societies). Probably the most important skills are those of the librarian at the outset. As these organizations mature and grow, additional specialized skills may be added (science, engineering, etc.).

Among the likely sources of these skills are the various Institutes of the Academy of Science, academia, university and public libraries, a few government agencies, and non-governmental organizations. In nearly every country in Central Europe, there are one or more Institutes that were permitted to develop in an independent fashion and are a potential source for supplying the necessary disciplinary skills, while offering some measure of objectivity.

In the early stages of development, when the research unit must seek to satisfy the need to change the nature of the dialogue (requiring a few high level experts), while meeting a large workload from MPs, it may be necessary to combine the skill flexibility of the librarian with the in-depth expertise of a lawyer, an economist, etc. Thus, the initial make-up of a prototype research staff might include 2-3 librarians and 2-3 specialists.

Internal Organizational Structure

Whether a staff is organized by discipline or subject (or some combination), is less important than the need to keep the structure simple and flat — using as few layers of organizational hierarchy as possible. Too many layers of review or direction will only hinder the capacity to produce timely products. An overly elaborate division of labor will slow the rapid communication that must take place within the organization, and among its elements while undertaking interdisciplinary research.

Much of the operation of the organization once established will flow from informal cues rather than formal organization and procedures. Communication must take place easily from analyst to analyst — horizontally, rather than up vertically through a hierarchical chain and back down again.

In terms of internal organization, a simple structure featuring a library reference unit and a research unit may suffice. As the organization grows, the research side may be elaborated by subdividing either by subject, discipline, or some combination. Because policy analysis is inherently an interdisciplinary profession, organizing by subject might be preferable.

As implied earlier, the quintessential staff characteristic for the legislative research organization should be breadth of training and perspective. This provides the subject flexibility that will prove so essential when the organization is small and will require broad subject coverage by each researcher. As the organization grows in numbers and can support more specialized backgrounds, it is still necessary to encourage the narrower specialities to think broadly as well as in depth. This is no simple task. The key is to provide the proper balance between needed disciplinary rigor and multi-causal breadth of view. This can be built into each researcher to some extent by experience, training and inculcation of values. However, it can also be trained into staff through the use of interdisciplinary teams.

OPERATING STYLES: INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE AND VALUES

As noted earlier, the operations of a legislative research unit must be decentralized and as non-hierarchical as possible to permit the quick response capability that is essential to effective performance for the legislature. For any organization to function effectively in such an environment, it must rely on a strong set of internalized values and a pervasive institutional culture to project and maintain those values in the absence of direct supervision.

Objectivity

The central value of an organization serving the entire legislature is objectivity. This value must animate the operations of the entire institution. As noted earlier, it derives from the belief that only elected representatives have the right to make value judgments that bind their fellow citizens through the force of law. While total objectivity might be logically impossible, balanced treatment of views and alternatives is attainable.

Clear, non–technical presentations

The legislator is a non-specialist. It is the responsibility of the research staff to present even the most technical matters in clear, understandable terms. To make informed decisions on matters that may bind society with the force of law, legislators must understand problems, policies, and prescriptions.

Accuracy and authoritativeness

This seemingly commonplace value takes on greater importance in a legislative setting because of the unique culture of that setting. The legislature is an immensely practical institution, relying on common-sense and usable knowledge[7] It is inhabited by practical people of affairs, who are not dominated by a research orientation. In this environment, the most important mistake to avoid is the first one.

There is an inherent tension between the kinds of rigorous review activities that one can take to protect against mistakes or errors, and the need to produce timely products. The Congressional Research Service has three levels of formal review in the organization (in addition to the assumed peer review routinely conducted by the analyst), yet these reviews are often accomplished in the same day if the circumstances require.

Discretion and confidentiality

Discretion and trust are central values for a legislative research unit working as a consultant in an environment that is competitive and often sees information as a source of power. To be actively engaged in the most important work of the legislature requires that the analyst be trusted. Thus, CRS does not share the confidential work of one member with any others without his or her explicit permission.

Timing is everything

The legislature itself is a hostage to ripening political opportunities that require it to act when the circumstances are right or risk inaction. John Kingdon describes these "windows of opportunity"[8] for legislative action that open briefly when an emerging political consensus converges with the availability of a popular policy solution, and a crisis impels the process to action. Failure to act quickly risks losing this elusive impetus to action. Analysis or information that does not respond to legislative deadlines is useless — for decisions will already be made.

Anticipation of issues

Good analysts anticipate issues so that they can do the background research that prepares them to act effectively when the legislature calls.[9] The Congressional Research Service encourages this necessary individual trait by conducting an institutional process called the Major Issue Planning System. At the beginning of each new Congress, working with our top managers and researchers, CRS identifies the most important 15-20 major issues that Congress is likely to address in the ensuing two-year period.

The key outcome is an operating style that encourages strategic thinking — both individually and institutionally. The process requires both substantive and political skills, sensing an issue before it matures into a crisis that impels legislative action, carving time out from other pressing duties to gather information and data, framing alternatives that promise to mitigate or resolve the issue, and generating interest from the legislature in issues that have not yet become crises so that it can also consider the issue thoughtfully.

OPERATING STYLES:LOOKING OUTWARD

Just as there are operating styles that are central to supporting a functional institutional culture, there are useful perspectives to adopt in approaching the outside environment of clints and other actors in the community of information providers to the legislature.

Policy analysis and the role of the "research broker"

There are two concepts that are helpful in dealing with the universal problem that there will never be enough resources to do all that is necessary or desirable. The first is to distinguish policy analysis from research. And the second is to adopt the role of research broker for the legislature.

There is very little time for basic research in a legislative setting. Work in this environment is an applied science rather than basic research. In this sense, the more specialized term policy analysis is more appropriate than research for the activity of a legislative analysis unit.[10] Policy analysis undertakes to identify available information and research findings that bear on a policy concern, gauge the quality and relevance of that body of knowledge to the task at hand, discard the lower-quality or irrelevant, fill in any gaps that exist, and combine and reshape the new body of information into a form ready for use in a legislative setting.

The second useful concept for dealing with scarcity of resources is that of a research broker, suggested by James Sundquist while he was at the Brookings Institution.[11] The broker model posits a gap between the academic conducting basic research and policymakers who could use this information in making decisions. To bridge the gap, Sundquist suggests that a middle-man or broker position be established to reach into academia and other sources of information and bring this to the attention of policymakers at the right time. Legislative analysts can serve this broker role for the legislature. Given the shortage of analytical resources in Central and Eastern Europe, it makes eminently good sense to expand the range of information providers by enlisting academics, scholars in the various institutes of the Academies of Science, and elsewhere in the cause of providing analysis for the legislature.

Institutional memory

Because the legislature is a constantly renewing body, some part of the institutional memory of the entity will be lost with the departure of its individual members. Thus, there is a need for the more tenured staff of the legislature to provide the intitutional memory for such questions as: What approaches to this problem have been tried before? Why was a particilar legislative amendment passed (or not passed), with an emphasis on the real political, substantive, or institutional barriers not mentioned in the official report? What groups were in favor or opposed to the amendment and why?

The oral tradition in the legislature

Legislative policy analysts are required to place greater emphasis on oral presentations than their executive or academic counterparts. This stems from the fact that the schedule of a Member of Congress is so crowded that one survey conducted several years ago found that members spent an average of only 11 minutes each day reading. The oral presentation of the legislative analyst provides opportunity for immediate clarification of questions, probing of alternative approaches, and testing the credibility of the source of that information. The ability to present complex issues orally, as well as in writing, then becomes another essential skill for the legislative analyst.

This need to provide a marketing service arises because there is so much "noise" in the system because of the hectic pace of events, the phenomenon of "information overload", and the competition of other more self-interested information providers like lobbyists and special interest groups. To get a fair hearing of more balanced analysis, it becomes the responsibility of legislative researchers to make known their products and services.

WRAPPING UP: MODELS OF OPERATION

The Congressional Research Service performs at least three roles for Congress: information factory, policy advisor, and think tank.[12] These roles can serve concrete illustrations of the principles outlined above.

It is an *information factory* in the sense that CRS responds to over 500,000 requests for information every year (an average of nearly 2,000 requests every day Congress is in working session). Yet it answers two- third of these requests on the same day they are received. What makes this possible is a staff of trained reference librarians who use a vast reservoir of CRS-prepared products already on the shelves when needed, and supplement those materials with information found using carefully honed database searching skills. The inventory of products on the shelf is the result of anticipating issues and providing written analyses often before they are requested.

Contacts between CRS and congressional clients are direct and personal (via telephone and in-person consultations), as well as through less personal routes such as mail, document delivery, and access by computer. This *policy consultant* role for Members and their staff is among the most important services offered by CRS. In the 1970 Amendments to the Legislative Reorganization Act of 1946, Congress emphasized that it wanted the analytical services of CRS to be available directly in the legislative process and at every stage of that process. As a result, the Service may be found at each legislative stage bringing the fruits of research and analysis into the process — including help in the design and conduct of hearings, drafting questions for Members to ask witnesses, preparation of background studies and options, attendance at committee mark-up sessions, etc. The entrepreneurial skills of the analyst are sometimes critical to gaining access to this most important part of the process.

A third role is that of *think tank* for the Congress, providing basic research when needed and even building computerized policy simulation models, when appropriate. On occasion, policy analysts working as a research brokers discover that an important piece of basic research has not been done yet, but it is so central to solving the policy problem that it must be undertaken. If policy simulation models are called for, they can be useful in estimating the consequences of proposed action before those actions are taken.

CONCLUSION

When new legislative research services are commenced, they should be designed with an eye toward the future. Legislatures in newly emerging democracies are certain to evolve in a number of ways. Perhaps, as in biological evolution, an initial "generalized" organizational structure will be able to accommodate future changes best. The emphasis on flexibility of staffers is also appropriate.

NOTES

William H. Robinson is Deputy Director and Senior Specialist in Public Policy at the Congressional Research Service of the Library of Congress. The author wishes to express special appreciation to Janice Hyde for her invaluable advice and assistance throughout the work on this paper. Without her impressive intelligence and industry, there would have been no paper. He also thanks Daniel Mulhollan, Stanley Bach, and Royal Shipp for a variety of intellectual debts on this and other projects on which they have collaborated and taught much in the process.

1. H.Stubbs, *Select Charters and Other Illustrations of English Constitutional History,* (Oxford: Clarendon Press), 1895, pp.480-482.

2. Barbara Sinclair, "Congressional Leadership: A Review Essay and a Research Agenda," in Kornacki, John J., ed.,*Leading Congress: New Styles, New Strategies,* (Washington, D.C.: Congressional Quartely), 1990,p.97.

3. The idea of classifying legislatures by their information processing needs is suggested in Karl Deutsch's classic, *The Nerves of Government,* and this particilar typology owes much to Dan Mulhollan of CRS and his adaptation of a classification done by the Citizens Conference on State Legislatures, *State Legislatures: An Evaluation of Effectiveness,* (New York: Praeger), 1971.

4. For an interesting discussion of the differences between legislatures that are "arenas" of discussion versus "transforming" legislatures, see Nelson Polsby, "Legislatures," in Fred Greenstein and Nel-

son Polsby,eds.,Governmental Institutions and Processes, Handbook of Political Science, Vol.5 (Reading, MA:Addison-Wesley), 1975,pp.257-319.

5. For a useful cross-cultural comparison of legislatures, see Gerhard Loewenberg and Samuel C.Patterson, *Comparing Legislatures,* (Boston:Little, Brown and company),1979,344 pp.

6. This issue is discussed in Arthur Maass, *Congress and the Common Good,* (New York:Basic Books),1983,pp.67-70; James Marsh, "Representational Changes:The Constituency MP," in Philip Norton,ed., *Parliament in the 1980s,* (Oxford: Basil Blackwell),1985,pp.69-93; and Walter Williams, *Washington, Westminster and Whitehall,* (Cambridge:Cambridge University Press),1988,233p.

7. For an interesting discussion of the differences between the methods of "professional social inquiry" and the "usable knowledge" of the legislator, see Charles E.Lindblom and David K.Cohen, *Usable Knowledge: Social Science and Social Problem Solving,* (New Haven:Yale University Press),1979,pp.10-29.

8. For a fuller description of "policy windows" see John W.Kingdon, *Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies,* (Boston:Little Brown and company), 1984, pp.173-204.

9. For a more complete discussion of this topic, see William H.Robinson, "Policy Analysis for Congress:Lengthening the Time Horizon," *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management,* Volume 8,no1,1989,p.1-9.

10. See Richard P.Nathan, *Social Science in Government:Uses and Misuses,* (New York: Basic Books), 1988, for a useful discussion of the differences between policy analysis, policy research, and other related endeavors.

11. James L.Sundquist, "Research Brokerage: The Weak Link," in Laurence D.Lynn, ed., *Knowledge and Policy: The Uncertain Connection,* (Washington,DC: National Academy of Sciences), 1978,pp.126-44.

12. For a fuller discussion of CRS and these various roles, see William Robinson, "The Congressional Research Service: Policy Consultant, Think Tank, and Information Factory," in Carol Weiss, ed.,*Institutions for Policy Advice,* (New York:Sage Publications,Inc), forthcoming in 1991.

Collection Development Policies of Parliamentary Libraries

Ernst Kohl
Deutsehes Bundestag, Bonn, Germany

Abstract

The collection is the foundation of the Parliamentary Library's services. The collection development policies must be based on a thorough assessment of the information requirements of Members of Parliament. Seven categories of materials can be distinguished in this respect: reference books; press and other media information; current affairs materials; occasional publications of organized interest groups, mass organizations, and political parties; government information and official publications; Parliamentary papers; and general works on law, political science, administration, international relations, defense, economics, agriculture, environment, and education. Guidelines for the collection of these materials are established in the paper in some detail.

Ideologies, religious beliefs, moral convictions, biased opinions, selfish interests and resentments may all play a role in political decision making, the most important factor, however, is information. In contemporary societies the issues which have to be solved by politics are rarely simple ones. Most of them are, indeed, rather complex, and demand of the political decision makers an extensive knowledge of

— facts/events;

— the latest authoritative results of academic research, science and technology

— public opinion;

— the felt preferences of those groups of the society that are affected by the issue at stake;

— directives and targets of international and supranational organizations that may have to be observed;

— the solutions which other bodies politic may have found to the problem at hand.

As political decision makers are confronted nowadays with a wide range of issues from many different fields, it is impossible for them to have the necessary expertise in all matters. Therefore they are dependent on information in order to attain to an understanding of the individual problem. This statement is irrespective of the political system of a country. It holds true for dictatorships as well as for single-party regimes, or democratic governments.

The existence of a Parliament cannot always be taken as evidence of a true democratic form of government in that state. The history of parliamentarism suggests, however, that the mere existance of a Parliament as an institution results in the eventual evolution of participatory forms of government. Parliamentary libraries can contribute to this evolutionary process.

Parliaments which want to have a say in the political affairs of the country, must first secure their right of having unrestricted access to all informations which are necessary for decision making. A tool for effecting this access to information is, no doubt, the Parliamentary Library. Once a legal obligation to respond to information requests from Parliament is binding upon all government agencies, the public administration, and, indeed, all other generally accessible sources of information, the professionalism of the Parliamentary Library guarantees the identification, location, analysis, condensation, if necessary simplification, and finally mediation or dissemination of well-searched, accurate, up-to-date informations for political decision making to Parliamentarians on a strictly non-partisan basis.

Contemporary information-intensive societies result in an information overload for political decision makers. This can be evidenced by a recent empirical investigation into the working facilities and time schedules of the Members of the German Bundestag, released in 1990 [1]).

In sitting weeks, according to this study, Parliamentarians spend an average of 2.6 hours or 3.3% of close to 78 working hours per week on "innovative", knowledge-acquisition activities and another 3.9 hours or 5% on reading newspapers, magazines and like informations, which adds up to altogether 8.3% of their time. In non-sitting weeks the figures are 5.1 hours on knowledge acquisition and 5.3

hours on other reading which corresponds to almost 14% of again a 78-hour working week. Even more interesting than these figures are Members' assessments of them. Asked for an evaluation of their various actiuities they complained that their time budget for knowledge acquisition was too small (the highest ratio by the way of all grievances), with 77% complaining that the time for comprehensive information was not sufficient. In comparison, 79% felt they had not enough time for their private lives. All other grievances drew much lesser percentages. Let us underline, therefore, that two of the three top shortcomings directly affect the realm of the Parliamentary Library, or to put it differently, the result of the survey demonstrates that a Parliamentary Library is one of the most important provisions of any Parliamentary Administration. If the Parliamentary Library succeeds in acting as an intelligent information broker to Parliamentarians, digesting and compressing the information overload to the information capacity of the individual Member of Parliament, it will relieve Parliamentarians of one of their utmost felt grievances — a high obligation for the acquisition and reference activities of Parliamentary librarians.

Collection development is the foundation of efficient reference services. Reviewing the collection development policies of Parliamentary libraries it is important to realise that, and how, they are influenced by the entire library and documentation and information (I & D) infrastructure of the capital (or of the seat of Parliament, if Parliament does not sit in the capital). If the National Library is located in the same town as well as major I & D centres, the Parliamentary Library need not itself build up a large general collection on law, administration, international relations, political science, economics, business and commerce, agriculture, environment, social welfare, and education, as long as it is entitled to rely heavily on these external information sources [2]. Therefore, the size of the general collection of a Parliamentary Library, which reflects the latest authoritative results of academic research, science and technology, varies according to the information infrastructure of the capital. Apart from this category, there are six other primary categories of materials, which must be collected by a Parliamentary Library:

— reference books including statistical compilations and cartographic materials;

— press and other media information;

— current affairs materials, including a comprehensive collection of periodicals;

— publications of organized interest groups, mass organizations, and political parties;

— government and other official and semi-official publications, including the publications of public corporations and the courts, and of international organizations;

— Parliamentary documents, including national, regional, and foreign legislation.

An extensive reference collection, is necessary to meet Parliamentarians' information requirements concerning facts and events. In some of the larger Parliaments even the individual Standing Committees may be provided with reference libraries of their own [3]. As Members require accurate and relevant data, the reference collection must be maintained on a current basis. Reference collections must include encyclopedias, parliamentary and government handbooks, biographical works, directories, yearbooks or almanacs, statistical compilations, dictionaries, in particular legal dictionaries and procedural manuals, statute books and law reports, quotation sourcebooks, travel guides, and atlasses. As a matter of fact the reference collection is non-circulating.

The media inform about both events/facts and public opinion on these. An interesting result of the recent empirical investigation into the specificities of work of the Members of the German Bundestag [1] was that Parliamentarians prefer newspapers as their primary source of information on events and public opinion on all other media, whereas for the German population, *i.e.* the electorate, broadcasting and television in this order are the most important sources of information. The Parliamentary Library must, therefore, subscribe to national and a selection of regional and local newspapers of its own country as well as to representative foreign newspapers, moreover to news digests and press releases. Technically advanced Parliamentary libraries also take information on tape or on video from the broadcasting and television agencies, paying particular attention to the items not sufficiently covered by the print media. All materials must be indexed daily by the Parliamentary Library, cut, photocopied, and distributed, which is highly labour intensive. Regular dissemination of press releases to Members of Parliament must be finished by noon so as to allow Parliamentarians to react the same day. Dealing with instant information requires a particular swiftness on the part of the librarian. As against the news spread by the media, another type of current affairs information can be identified which is contained in magazines and other periodicals, but also in occasional publications of various origins. These informations can be classified as in-depth treatments dealing with policy formulation for the topical subjects of the day, offering summary reports of the facts, background information, perspectives, evaluations, decision criteria.

Because of their pressed time Members of Parliament often prefer a periodical article to monograph on the same topic. Irrespective of the library and I & D infrastructure of the capital, Parliamentary libraries should, therefore, aim at substantial collections on periodicals, particularly law reviews, providing both a periodicals reading room and (radial or circular) routing of periodicals.

Many Parliamentary libraries also scan all or part of their periodicals for politically relevant articles, which are then indexed and catalogued, and quite a few of them supply current bibliographic reference services of selected periodical articles. If a Parliamentary Library need not index periodicals itself because of the existance of adequate I & D centres in the capital or because it has access to relevant data bases, it should still subscribe to a large number of periodicals because of the principle of immediate document delivery to the customer which must govern all readers services of a Parliamentary Library. In particular data base searches will be ineffective, if the Parliamentary Library is not able instantly to procedure the periodical articles cited in the data base.

The collection development policies of Parliamentary libraries must pay particular attention to the ephemeral publications and releases (the 'grey literature') of political parties, mass organizations, and the professional lobbying groups. Some Parliamentary libraries receive these occasional publications on a quasi-legal-deposit basis [4]). The rationale of these publications is often to put the case of their particular clients across to the decision makers.

The particular purpose of these publications accounts for fact that in spite of legal deposit legislation their collection by the national libraries in all countries is almost always incomplete. Irrespective of the library infrastructure of the capital, Parliamentary libraries, therefore, are well vised to collect these materials themselves. When the representatives of these groups are allowed access to the Parliamentary Library [3]), the degree of completeness of these collections will increase.

These materials which articulate the specific interests and preferences of the various groups in society to topics of the day or to a legislative activity are particularly important for decision making in political systems where the qualified wishes of the affected people are taken into account. In democratic forms of governments mass organizations, special-interest groups, and citizen's action groups are intentionally given a share in political decision making, *e.g.* by being invited to Parliamentary hearings, and competitive elections to Parliament serve as a guarantee that this kind of responsive rule is respected by politicians.

Government information and official publicatuons are equally important materials, not only for Parliamentary decision making, but also for Parliamentary control of the government and public administration. Parliamentary libraries should see to it that they are entitled to receive these publications by legal deposit law. Attention should be paid to the expert evidences of the academic advisory councils being included, which the individual government departments nowadays establish in great numbers, as these occasional publications are sometimes classified as semi-official and, therefore, not automatically deposited.

On a selective basis, the official publications of foreign governments and international bodies are also significant sources of information, which is often vital in the provision of legislative reference services, in particular if directives and targets of international or supranational bodies have to be observed. Because of the latter some Parliamentary libraries have negotiated for being accorded by international organizations the status of a depository library for their publications.

Special emphasis must be laid on the collection of informations generated by the Parliaments themselves. Parliamentary papers include the rules of procedure; the orders of the day; the record of the proceedings of debates; copies of the bills and motions introduced in Parliament; committee reports; copies of questions/ interpellations put to the ministries. In addition there are other Parliamentary publications, *i.e.* about the structure, operations and facilities of Parliament, or a directory of Members.

It is also important to collect certain documents of other Parliaments, which can generally be acquired on an exchange basis. The records of debates, and committee reports of other Parliaments can be helpful for decision making, as many political issues are not unique in the sense that they occur in one country only but are general, regional or global in nature, so that some solutions to them might be found in the Parliamentary papers of foreign Parliaments.

The collection is the foundation of the Parliamentary Library's services. The collection development policies, therefore, must be guided by the information requirements of Parliamentarians on the one hand and by the necessity of providing information on a timely basis on the other.

1. Abgeordnete und Bürger: Ergebnisse einer Befragung der Mitglieder des 11. Deutschen Bundestages und der Bevölkerung / Dietrich Herzog... — Opladen: Westdeutscher Verlag, 1990. — 133 s. ISBN 3-531-12172-3

2. This situation is typical for most Parliamentary libraries, but there are exceptions to this general rule as can be seen from a comparison between the House of Commons Library in London and the German Bundestag Library in Bonn. According to the figures supplied for the 4th edition of the World Directory of National Parliamentary Libraries the 173 year-old House of Commons Library in London with at present 196 staff, of which 80 are professional librarians has a collection of 615,000 volumes with an annual acquisition of 24,000 volumes, whereas the Bundestag Library with at present 93 staff (of which 76 are professional librarians) has in the 42 years of its existence built up a much larger collection of 1,060,000 volumes, the annual acquisition rate being 45,000 volumes. As the National Library was located in Frankfurt (now: in Frankfurt and Leipzig), the documentation centre for political sciences in Berlin and the one for economics in Kiel, the Bundestag Library had to build up a substantial general collection itself, as there was

no back-up library at the seat of Parliament, which could supply these materials instantly when required

3. This is being done in the German Bundestag

4. On some counntries mass organizations, special-interest and citizens' action groups which want to be invited to Parliamentary hearings, have to register themselves, usually with the Presidency of Parliament. If that is the case they can be obliged to impart their publications to the Parliamentary Library.